The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 29, 1888.

The Week.

THE death of Chief-Justice Waite was so sudden and unexpected that most people were probably surprised to learn that he was a man well along in his seventy-second year, who had earned the right to retire on a pension a year ago last November. He had but recently completed his fourteenth year of service, having been appointed in January, 1874. Judge Waite was Grant's fourth choice for the Chief Justiceship, and his nomination was received by the country with a profound sigh of relief after the remarkable selections which the President had previously made. The place was first offered to Mr. Conkling, who had never shown any qualification for it, but happily declined, as "Senatorial courtesy" would doubtless have secured his confirmation. Grant next hit upon George H. Williams, then his Attorney-General, who was not only without proper legal qualifications, but was positively disqualified for other reasons. When it became evident that Williams could not be confirmed, Grant gave the country a fresh surprise by sending in the name of Caleb Cushing, who was already four years past seventy, and who, in his long career, had become better known for craft and shrewdness than respected for integrity. Cushing was quickly done for by the production of a letter which he had written in 1861 to "my dear friend" Jefferson Davis, recommending another friend of his, a renegade civil servant, to the President of the Confederacy. While everybody was wondering what surprise Grant would next perpetrate, came the nomination of Morrison R. Waite, a man only slightly known to the general public, but of excellent repute and record as a lawyer and as counsel for the United States before the Geneva tribunal. The appointment was hailed rather as a happy escape than as a conspicuously fit one, but the Chief Justice has grown steadily in public estimation, and he leaves an eminently respectable name.

The death of the Chief Justice, following within a few months that of Justice Woods, foreshadows an early reconstruction of the Supreme bench politically, so far as a majority of its members are concerned. Of Lincoln's five appointees to this bench only Miller and Field survive, and they were both born earlier in the same year with Waite. Of Grant's four appointees, Hunt and Waite are dead, Strong retired, and Bradley was seventy-five years old last week. Blatchford, Arthur's appointee, was sixty-eight a few days ago. Fortunately, these changes in the Supreme Court did not begin until the old issue which formerly divided parties had been settled. The "State rights" question was formally and finally disposed of by the Supreme Court while all its members were the appointees of Republican Presidents; "the necessity of the autonomy of the States and their power to regulate their domestic affairs," to use the language of Justice Miller, having been reestablished, after the unsettling period of war and reconstruction, before a Democratic President had a chance to make a single appointment. The great distinction of the late Chief Justice will be the fact that he threw the weight of his influence on the right side when the highest judicial tribunal was annulling unconstitutional laws passed by a Congress of his own party, and that he did not shrink from joining in a decision on the Virginia debt question a few weeks ago, which was "regarded by all classes in Richmond as a fixed and final triumph of State sovereignty." There was a time when the fear of a "State rights" bench appointed by a Democratic President would have caused widespread apprehension, but the course of events has been such that the wildest partisan organs will now find it difficult to arouse alarm over the prospect that Mr. Cleveland is to appoint a Chief Justice.

Mr. James Russell Lowell will deliver another address in this city April 13, on the invitation of the Reform Club. It will probably be full of politics, and will cause renewed agitation among the Blaineites. It is almost impossible to avoid making them howl in any political speech not delivered on behalf of Blaine, because they resent as insulting to their fetish all praise of any other public man, living or dead. If one who is known not to admire Blaine speaks well of Washington's integrity, for instance, they suspect him of alluding to Blaine's crookedness. If he eulogizes Macaulay as an historian, they think he means to depreciate 'Twenty Years of Congress.' If he speaks highly of Hamilton Fish's diplomacy, they conclude he means to deride Blaine's "Pan-American" conference. But the climax of annoyance is reached if he calls the President upright or disinterested, because this is always received in Blaine circles as a veiled allusion to the Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds and the Mulligan letters. As it would be hard for Mr. Lowell to make a speech without praising somebody, we may therefore look for "lively times" among the "aut Blaine aut nullus" people.

The London correspondent of the *Tribune* telegraphs that "nothing affords Mr. Blaine so much amusement as the Democratic and Mugwump comments on his refusal to allow his name to be presented to the National Convention, etc." But the same correspondent telegraphed December 6, 1887, that Mr. Blaine "laughed—he is always laughing." It would seem, therefore, that either Mr. Blaine is afflicted with cachinnatory hysteria, or he is so easily amused that there is nothing wonderful in the amusement he gets out of the Mugwumps and Democrats. The truth is, however, that the discussions over all his sayings—his refusals and assertions and denials—are very amusing, and amuse even the gloomiest men of all parties. The difficulty his followers have in interpreting his utterances, the general unwillingness to accept any of them as final, the "further explanations" that follow them, and the various modes in which exposures of his ignorance or untruthfulness are met, have been making people laugh now for ten years. The hardest blow his admirers have received is the announcement that he sees the fun of it all himself.

There could hardly be a better sign of the times than the debate on the tariff in Boston on Saturday between Mr. E. P. Wheeler of this city and Mr. Butterworth, the member of Congress from Ohio, the former representing the Massachusetts Tariff Reform League, and the latter the Home Market Club. The Tremont Temple was crowded with people eager to listen to the controversy, and their plaudits and interruptions showed their keen interest in the subject. Mr. Butterworth was naturally embarrassed by his advocacy of free trade with Canada, which, of course, is not to be justified by the standard tariff arguments, but he made as good a fight as can be made on the anti-British line of defence. If the association of bad, wicked England with a low tariff had been taken out of his argument, there would have been but little left. Mr. Wheeler, on the other hand, was undoubtedly much aided by the effect of the Trusts on the popular mind. Arrangements for keeping up prices are, in other words, discredited just now as they never have been before; and consequently any one who says a good word for the poor consumer receives a more attentive hearing than he has done for many a day. But no matter who gets the best of it, the fact that the subject is at last being debated before popular audiences is a great thing for the country, and full of promise for the future.

The Louisville *Courier-Journal*, by its Washington correspondent, foots up 142 Democratic votes for the Mills Tariff Bill, together with 5 Republicans and 4 Independents—total, 153. In a full house 163 votes will be required to pass it. These must be obtained from the Randall Democrats—19 in number. What is meant by passing the Mills bill is not stated by the writer. If he means that the Mills bill as it stands, with all its items unchanged, will receive 153 votes, we take leave to doubt the statement very seriously. But if he does not mean this, he means that some bill, after running the gauntlet first of the Committee of the Whole and then of the House, will pass, which is a very different thing. We do not believe that the bill as reported, or as it may be reported, will come anywhere near passing—not because it is not a good bill, or as good as all the circumstances, political and other, will allow, but

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

because every local interest touched by it will make a desperate effort to change the particular item which concerns itself, and will, in many cases, succeed in doing so. The necessity of reducing the revenue, however, makes a vast difference between present circumstances and those of 1883. This necessity is imperative and overwhelming. Consequently the Mills bill may, and probably will, pass, but it will be a very different thing from the present bill. Its value consists more in the shaping of future political issues than in the particular items contained in it. Even if the final shape of it should be the taking of the whole revenue reduction off sugar and tobacco, we should consider it a measure of great value and importance, since it would not only relieve the strained financial situation, but would present to the country a new set of ideas to work out and vote upon, swamping the Southern question and all the faded and fading issues of the past quarter of a century.

Among the numerous Trusts springing up in every direction, the Halibut Trust is entitled to some consideration. This is a fish trust, and is closely connected with the fishery dispute that has been the cause of so much international disquietude. The Boston *Herald* recognizes, in the names of the persons prominent in the Halibut Trust, several that have been prominent in protesting against the "surrender of our rights" in the pending treaty, and who are urgent in favor of immediate "retaliation." In case retaliation is put in force so that Canadian fish are wholly prohibited, the *Herald* expects that a Cod Trust and a Mackerel Trust will be formed immediately. Why not? Is there anything more absurd intrinsically in a Smoked Herring Trust or a Sardine Trust than in a Sugar Trust or a Lead Trust? Certainly not. Let us have all the Trusts we can—subordinate, of course, to the great Tariff Trust. They are all for the advantage of the laboring man, because the more money the Trust is enabled to levy on the community, the higher wages it is enabled to pay. But when we come to consider the pending Fishery Treaty, it is consoling to know that there is a Halibut Trust opposing it with might and main.

The Chicago *Tribune* gives a very instructive account of the headquarters of the managers of the engineers' strike in Chicago. They have rooms which would be the best in the hotel if they did not front on a courtyard. They are very large and luxuriously furnished, and Chief Arthur's bedroom adjoining is one of those expensive ones which have bath-rooms attached. They cost $20 a day, or $500 for twenty-five days. Men who are directing a strike have to be comfortable, and make a good show to the monopolists when they call on them. Besides these, the Brotherhood is paying for other rooms at the European National Hotel, where the C., B. and Q. Grievance Committees sit. The bills here are also very heavy, and the telegraph bill is said to be huge. The result of all this is that about 1,000 men are thrown out of work for an indefinite period, and must live for some time to come on the funds of the Brotherhood. In other words, the strike has proved a total failure, and, besides the loss to the men, has inflicted great loss on the railroad and on the community. In resisting it, the C., B. and Q. was simply asserting the right to manage its property in its own way, opposing the doctrine of compulsory hiring, which asserts the right of laborers to stay in other people's service against the employer's will, on their own terms. It is for the enforcement of this doctrine that Powderly concocted the maxim that "the injury of one is the concern of all," and initiated the practice of sympathetic strikes. The answer to it all is that mankind could not, in the existing condition of human nature, extract even a bare living from Mother Earth under any such arrangement. Mother Earth has fixed matters in such a way that the human race at present can only make itself comfortable through the plan of having every man mind his own business, and rigidly refrain from unloading on his neighbor, or meddling in his neighbor's affairs without the neighbor's consent.

Gov. Larrabee of Iowa was very neatly caught by President Perkins of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad in the correspondence which was printed last week. By way of harassing the road in the interest of the strikers, the Governor wrote that "frequent complaints had of late been made to him concerning the interruption of freight and passenger transportation caused by the strike of the engineers, as well as the danger arising from the employment of incompetent substitutes for such employees." This Mr. Perkins took quite seriously, and said: "I will esteem it a favor if you will kindly have transmitted to me a statement of all complaints which have been or may hereafter be brought to your attention, in order that we may endeavor to render satisfaction in each case." He also offered "to make payment in full" by way of damages where liable. We need hardly say the brave Larrabee was not prepared for this. So he made answer:

> "In compliance with your request, I shall take pleasure in forwarding to you any claim for damages that may in the future be brought to my attention. While the inconvenience caused to the public by the present strike has been the subject of much complaint, my intercedence to recover damages has thus far not been requested."

In other words, either he had evolved the "frequent complaints" out of his gubernatorial imagination, or they came from the strikers themselves.

The sympathetic strike of the switchmen on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad of course must end as the strike of the engineers has done, in the employment of other men to fill their places, with more loss to the road, heavy loss and suffering to the men and their families, and considerable delay and interruption to business. The general result will be, that at the end of the year both labor and capital will be worse off in consequence of these strikes than they would have been, though their relations to each other will not be changed. People who expect some great revolution in the organization of modern society in consequence of these labor troubles, would do well to take note of these facts. Labor troubles, in the existing condition of intelligence and character, cannot possibly produce a social revolution of any kind. They can cause disturbance, delay, and diminution of profits, and increase the timidity of capital, but they cannot introduce any new order of things. All the great social changes have been the results either of increased mental and moral culture on the part of the masses, or the increased ascendency on the part of the cultivated few. Discontented ignorance has done nothing for the world thus far, and never can. The only solution of the labor question thus far offered by Labor in this country is that great enterprises should be controlled by their employees under the despotism of a small knot of outside professional agitators, and that the lazy and incompetent man should be paid as much as the diligent and capable. Of course these are not wonder-working suggestions. In fact, sensible men do not consider them at all, and civilized society in the long run is carried on by sensible men.

Another important decision bearing upon the question of prohibition has just been rendered by the Supreme Court. The State of Iowa, by a law passed in April, 1886, attempted to prevent any railroad company from bringing liquor into the State unless the company had been furnished with a certificate from the County Auditor of the county to which the liquor was to be transported, showing that the consignee was legally authorized to sell it. This was equivalent to denying any citizen of Iowa the right to order and have brought to him, even for his own sole use, any liquor by any railroad company from outside the State. The court declares this law invalid, holding that the power to regulate or forbid the sale of a commodity after it has been brought into a State does not carry with it the right and power to prevent its introduction by transportation from another State, and that such legislation would be an unauthorized interference with inter-State commerce. The *Iowa State Register* pronounces this "a pretty serious blow to the cause of prohibition in Iowa, as it will inevitably lead to a large traffic in liquor in the State from other States."

The stringent working of the new High-License Law in Pennsylvania is calling forth loud complaints from the brewers. They cannot take out licenses for as many saloons as they please, as they have done heretofore. In fact, they can take out none at all. As about half the saloons in the city have been closed already, there is a great falling off in the sale of beer, and it is said that nearly all the smaller breweries will be forced to shut down. The larger brewers say that they shall have to reduce

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the number of their employees from a half to two-thirds, and declare that in all probability 9,000 of the 12,000 hands at present employed will be discharged. A manufacturer of brewers' wagons says, that, since the law went into effect, orders which he had for twenty new wagons have been countermanded. A dealer in horses for brewers says that his business has also been greatly injured. Just how much exaggeration there is in these complaints cannot be ascertained, but there is evidently a good deal. Still, there is no doubt that the law is restricting the liquor traffic seriously, and as a consequence all branches of it are affected more or less. This is a most encouraging development, for heretofore in Philadelphia, as in New York, the law has not operated as a check, but has been rather an aid to the great brewers in their eagerness to increase to the utmost the facilities for the sale of their product.

It is very natural that the Presbyterians North and South should be anxious to italicize this their centennial year by an organic reunion of the two great sectional divisions of their Church. Indeed, the sentimental considerations in favor of union now appear to be more powerful than the sentimental considerations which tend to keep up the separation. The hitch will come in matters of practical detail, if at all, and, among these, the hardest to handle is the status of the colored people under the new arrangement. From the published correspondence of the committees on reunion, it would seem that the Northern committee is disposed to accede to the Southern demand, and to set off the colored Presbyterians in separate presbyteries, even when conterminous with white presbyteries. This would be a recognition of the color line highly distasteful to many of the Presbyterians of the North, and in the teeth of the professions of the Northern Presbyterian Church. That it would be an abandonment of the practice of the Northern Church, however, as is asserted in some religious papers, is not so clear. Of course there are occasional colored members of Presbyterian churches in the North, who are tolerated and even made at home among their white brethren, though usually, we believe, in the guise of interesting objects of charity among the church's poor. But, so far as we know, there is no colored Presbyterian church in the North affiliating on equal terms with white churches of the same denomination, or even a church in which the colored membership rises above the most insignificant fraction.

If this were all the difficulty before the Southern Church, it would be no difficulty at all. The trouble arises in view of the larger masses of colored people at the South, and the question is how to deal with the two or three colored presbyteries of Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, composed wholly of colored members, and established as the result of missionary effort conducted by the Northern Church among the freedmen. They have been in as complete isolation from the Northern Church as from the Southern, with the exception of being entitled to representatives in the General Assembly, and that privilege is to be accorded them under the suggested arrangement. So that, practically, the proposal involves no change at all for the Northern Church, and the committee from that branch of the denomination seem to think it unfair to force a social difficulty upon their Southern brethren which, they doubtless feel, their own Church would shrink from meeting were the question one of practice and not sentiment. It certainly ought to be remembered, in connection with these pending negotiations, that in some cases—for example, in home missionary work in Texas—the Northern Church has already drawn the color line as sharply as the Southern; even a "Northern" Presbyterian church there having to be, as a minister of one such remarked, "either one thing or the other, white or colored, no mixing allowed."

The State Treasurer of Kentucky, one Tate, has defaulted and absconded. The assets he has left behind are very curious and a little "racy of the soil." One item is $75,000 in due bills from friends to whom he had lent the State money. Another, and the best, is 600 barrels of fine old whiskey, estimated at $50,000. That a man harassed, as he must have been, with pecuniary cares, should lay up so much whiskey, shows what a place this product holds in the Kentucky mind. It evidently stands where diamonds stand in other countries, as the thing to put money into for a rainy day. There used to be an old story of the Kentucky gentleman's travelling outfit consisting of two bottles of whiskey and a clean shirt to wrap them in to keep them from breaking; but that belonged to the day of small things, before the telegraph and telephone and electric light. Whiskey is now "carried" in broker's offices and public stores, instead of in gripsacks.

A mere glance at the work cut out for the Woman's International Council in Washington ought to be enough to send James Anthony Froude's heart down into his boots, and to convince him that no amount of talk from him will induce the talkers to stop talking, or even cut down their talk. "Papers" are to be read on fifty-one topics, if we have counted rightly, and discussion is to follow each paper. Besides this there is to be a sermon, a "Conference of Pioneers," and a symposium, and a farewell address, a song from "Lohengrin," and a solo on the violin. A full stenographic report of the proceedings is to be printed day by day. All this is to be the work of one short week. It will be a bad week for the Senators and Representatives who have not as yet made up their minds on the leading questions of female politics. The scarcer they make themselves, the better it will be for their peace. Most of the topics on which the talking is to be, are of a practical character, so that it is possible to communicate information as well as "views," and we, therefore, are satisfied, Mr. Froude to the contrary notwithstanding, that the talk, voluminous though it be, will do good, help to correct mistakes, and make some dark things clear.

We have, what is very rare, two *causes célèbres* pending in this city at present—both will cases, and both very odd in their way. One is nominally an attack by her blood relatives on the will of the late Mrs. Stewart, which gave ex-Judge Hilton half the residue of her estate, and, curiously enough, was drawn by himself, but it is really an inquiry into the way in which nearly the whole of A. T. Stewart's vast fortune was transferred to the same person, although only $1,000,000 was bequeathed to him in the will. The case will probably grow in interest as the trial proceeds. Ex-Judge Hilton's own examination or cross-examination by Mr. Choate will probably be one of the most interesting forensic spectacles of our time. The contest over Mr. Tilden's will concerns the claim of the city to about $4,500,000 for a public library, one of the most splendid gifts ever made for such a purpose. There could hardly be a better illustration of Mayor Hewitt's account of the composition of the city population than the small amount of interest taken by the public in this magnificent contribution to its higher welfare. Few seem to know, fewer still to care, much about the matter. If the will should be set aside and the money for the library lost, we doubt if there would be a word of lamentation, except something formal in the newspapers.

The Ministry have been making very distinct gains in England during the last two or three weeks in the sense of making the dissentient Liberals more contented with their lot, and readier to remain in the Tory camp! The Local Government Bill is as democratic in all its features as any that Mr. Gladstone would have introduced, and Mr. Goschen's budget is probably the best that any Chancellor of the Exchequer except Mr. Gladstone has produced in these later years. He is, after Gladstone, probably the most competent man in English public life to make a clear financial statement. In the present case, too, he has the immense advantage of coming to Parliament with a surplus, and being able through his conversion scheme to promise a reduction of taxation. His conversion of the public debt when fully carried out will reduce the annual charge by over $10,000,000, which to Englishmen, whose surplus rarely exceeds that amount even in good years, is a considerable gain. The applause with which his proposed imposition of a tax of $25 on race horses was greeted was due partly to the disgust excited by recent "turf scandals," partly to the belief that if anything be a luxury it is a race horse, and partly to the feeling even of sporting men that there are far too many "meetings" and too many horses in the field either for the good of the breed or the good of sport,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE CHIEF JUSTICESHIP.

To a man of legal training and judicial temper, interested in the study of principles and the development of institutions, ambitious to participate in the government of his country and to leave an enduring mark upon its history, the Chief Justiceship of the United States Supreme Court is the most attractive position in the nation. The tenure of office is for life, unless the incumbent chooses to retire upon a pension equal to his salary after reaching the age of seventy, and he is thus freed from all anxiety as to his old age. He is never troubled, as Senators so often are, by the fear that a political revolution or the temporary loss of public favor may end his career with the current term, and he escapes that terrible but inevitable revulsion which overtakes the man who has been President when he retires from the White House into obscurity. If he is appointed in middle life, he has before him the precedents of men who held the office for periods of twenty-eight and thirty-four years, and may anticipate seeing several generations of Congressmen and several executive administrations come and go while he keeps on his way.

The first Chief Justice clearly perceived the preëminence of the position. When the Government was organized, Washington offered Jay the choice of all the offices at his command, and he selected the headship of the Supreme Court. As he resigned after six years, because he believed it his duty to the people of New York to accept the Governorship, Jay's incumbency was too brief for him to realize his ideal, but Marshall, who served from 1801 to 1835, demonstrated the great possibilities of the place. For a third of a century Marshall was, as the Chief Justice should be, the dominant personality in the Court, and Taney, who succeeded him and served nearly as long, came to wield in his turn the paramount influence in the tribunal. Ill health and the Presidential fever combined made Chase's comparatively brief service hardly worthy of his earlier fame, and Waite never quite measured up to the full requirements of the office, highly respectable though his record was. The varying experience of the nation with Chief Justices has only served to emphasize the great importance of the office which a man of Jay's power deemed the most desirable, and there will be no lack of candidates for the existing vacancy.

It is a remarkable fact that, although the Chief Justiceship is the highest judicial office in the land, its incumbents since the beginning of this century have been men who had previously held no judicial position. Waite had not even had a case before the tribunal when he entered it, and his only legal service outside the ordinary practice of his profession had been as counsel of the United States at Geneva. Chase had been Governor of Ohio, Senator, and Secretary of the Treasury, but never a judge. Taney had been a member of the Maryland Legislature, Attorney-General of his State, and Attorney-General of the United States, but never a judge. Marshall had been member of the Virginia Legislature, Representative in Congress, and Secretary of State, but never a judge. It will thus be seen that it is as true of those who made the greatest careers in this office as of their less conspicuous successor just deceased, that they became the chief judge of the country without having held a subordinate judgeship.

It is also true that there have been great associate justices who went upon the highest bench, like their chiefs, without previous service upon any bench. Take two cases, one in our earlier and the other in our later history. Story, who sat for nearly a quarter of a century with such distinction beside Marshall, had been a member of the Massachusetts Legislature and a member of Congress, but never a judge, and, indeed, had practised law only ten years when appointed. Miller, whom Lincoln appointed in 1862, was educated a physician and practised medicine for eight years. He did not even begin the study of law until he was thirty, and he had held no judicial office, nor indeed any office of any sort, when elevated to the highest bench sixteen years later. Miller's case is perhaps the more striking of the two. Both were worthy of the Chief Justiceship, but Story was somewhat overshadowed by the greater Marshall, whereas for years Miller has been the dominant figure of the court. Nobody can examine the series of decisions rendered since the war, which have brought the Government back to its ancient moorings, without perceiving that Miller's has been the controlling mind, or without feeling that he ought properly to have been also the titular head of the court.

It would, of course, be absurd to argue that vacancies on the Supreme bench should only be filled from among men who had served on no lower bench, but it is obvious, in the light of such history, that the field of choice should not be restricted to men who are or have been judges. Other things being equal, such service would be an advantage; but if the President finds a man whom he considers conspicuously fit for the tribunal devoid of such experience, he should not consider it a drawback. The country doctors of Kentucky who had known Miller when he was an M.D., doubtless thought it odd when they heard not many years later that he had been made a judge of the highest court; but experience showed that Lincoln knew his man. With Republican administrations at Washington from 1861 to 1885, and Republicans controlling most of the States during the same period, Democratic lawyers have stood but a poor chance of holding judgeships, but Mr. Cleveland need not feel restricted to the comparatively short roll of such judges. If he can find the man who will prove a second Story or Miller, it will be no objection that he has never been a judge before.

One qualification should be insisted upon in any case. The appointee should be a man of vigorous physical constitution and in the prime of life. It is every way desirable that changes in the Chief Justiceship should be as rare as possible. Two men filled the position from 1801 to 1864, whereas the latest two incumbents served only from 1864 to 1888, or considerably less than half as long. Taney's case was exceptional, as he was 59 years old when appointed, and yet sat for 28 years, but Marshall's record of 34 years was due to his appointment in his 46th year. Forty-six was the age of Miller, who has already served nearly 26 years, and appears good for a number of years yet, and Field, who joined Miller in 1863, was born in the same year with him. Wayne, who sat 32 years, was 45 when appointed; and McLean, who also sat 32 years, was 44 when he received his commission. Of late the tendency has been towards appointing older men, Lamar, Blatchford, Hunt, and Strong having been 62, Waite and Bradley 57, and Chase and Matthews almost 57; but it is not a tendency to be encouraged, in view of the fact that Chase and Hunt broke down before they had served ten years, and Strong retired on a pension after ten years' service. By the time he has reached forty-five or fifty a man has had a chance to prove his quality, and if he goes on the bench then, experience shows that he will stand an excellent chance of doing good service for twenty-five or thirty years. The Chief Justice named by Mr. Cleveland in 1888 ought to be a man who, barring accidents, may be expected to keep at work until 1915 or even 1920.

THE SENATE AND INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT.

EARLY in the present Congress (December 12, 1887) Senator Chace presented his proposed amendment of the Revised Statutes, which extends, under certain conditions, the protection of the domestic copyright law to the productions of foreign authors and artists. The bill was referred to the Senate Committee on Patents, and there became the personal charge of the Senator from Rhode Island, who has been untiring in his efforts to put the project upon such a footing as should secure for it an affirmative vote in the Senate. To this end the chief concern has been to adopt such a text for the International Copyright Bill as would secure the support of all persons whose interests should be in any way affected by it. The success which has attended the repeated conferences between the representatives of the typographical unions, the publishers, the authors, and Senator Chace, was demonstrated at the hearing held in the room of the Senate Committee on Patents on Friday, March 9, where representatives of all classes concerned in the production of books were unanimous in advocating the passage of a bill with a final compromise text (the result of the various consultations), approved by the Senator having charge of it.

But five members of the Senate Committee on Patents took any part in this hearing, and of these no more than four were present at any one time, while for the greater part of the session only three members were in their seats, and but two remained during the entire conference. With the exception of the intelligent interest exhibited by the Senator whose bill was under discussion, there was the same expression of apathy so noticeable two years ago, when this subject was under consideration before the same Committee. It was bluntly intimated that

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

there was no desire to hear anything concerning the abstract right of an author to his literary property, or any arguments as to the equity of granting him proper legal security for the same; and even Mr. E. C. Stedman's remarks urging the need of "protective" legislation for the authors of America, in order that they might have a reasonable chance to live by their mental labor, and that our native literature should have a fair opportunity to develop, fell upon inattentive ears. It was only after the representatives of the sixty thousand or more typesetters, pressmen, stereotypers, etc., members of the various typographical unions, had made known their adhesion to the bill, that any expression of interest took place. But Mr. G. H. Putnam's clear and cogent statement of the present status of authorship and publication in the United States, and the result it was reasonable to expect from the passage of an international copyright bill, did produce a marked impression upon the members of the Committee present.

While slight interest was manifested in regard to the possibility that the passage of the proposed law would tend to elevate the national taste in literature, the reiterated question was, "Will the passage of an international copyright bill make books dear?" It is to be understood, of course, that this question was asked with the mental reservation: "after proper *protection* has been accorded our publishers, printers, and binders." To pay honestly the foreign author a modest price for his property, which we have appropriated for our own benefit, and at the same time remove the uncivilized restriction put upon the spread of knowledge, and cheapen literature by abolishing the iniquitous tariff upon books, was a proposition which it did not seem possible for the Committee to entertain. The real question in the minds of the Committee, apparently, was the possibility of affording sufficient protection to our book industries, and, in addition, securing to the foreign author his moderate percentage, without placing upon American readers a burden heavy enough to tempt the latter to revolt against our pet system; and the only alternative was to allow the continuance of the present method of literary piracy, aided and abetted by our tariff laws. For the important consideration was the preservation of "the protection principle of the country."

The bill was reported by Senator Chace Monday, March 19, and assigned a place on the calendar, and it seems fairly probable that it will succeed in passing the Senate. In that event no accusation can be brought against that body of any infringement of the above-named principle, because the bill provides for its extension to every class concerned in the production of books, even American authors for the first time coming in for a share of the benefits. The latter constitute almost the only class of producers in the United States who have not had the benefit of tariff protection; and not only that, but the American author has been obliged to bring his production—the manuscript of a book—into the market in direct competition with the printed copy of a book which the publisher has obtained without the necessary expenditure of a single penny of cost, simply because of the absence of honest legislation to prevent the reprehensible seizure of the foreign author's work.

Nor is this the only advantage which the American reprinter has enjoyed at the expense of the author. An equitable application of the so-called protection principle would suggest that the duty of 25 per cent. levied upon imported books for the benefit of American bookmanufacturers, should have been confined to books written by foreign authors. This would allow the native author to take advantage of the privilege accorded to him by the domestic copyright law, of having his manuscript put into a book wherever he could have the book manufactured at the lowest cost. In that case he would have 25 per cent. the advantage of his foreign author competitor, which is precisely the amount of advantage secured to the American publisher as against the foreign publisher by the present tariff duty. And the author's honest gain over the American reprinter in the cheaper material production of his book would go to offset the latter's dishonest advantage obtained by the piratical appropriation of the foreign author's manuscript or printed copy, and would allow the former to furnish his book to American readers at a very material reduction in price, and yet with an increase of profit to himself.

But the mite of "protection" which is to be secured to the American author by the proposed law is simply this: that when he takes his completed manuscript to a publisher to be printed, he will do so assured that the publisher must offer him payment for it with the knowledge that he can no longer obtain a similar production by a foreign author for nothing, but must pay something, at least, to the foreign writer for his work if he prefer it. And this protection is to be obtained by obliging the American reprinter so to pay the foreign owner—like any other *honest* dealer—for his raw material, and is, therefore, a very different thing from the protection now secured to the reprinter by extracting a heavy toll from the foreign publisher who attempts to invade this market. But to obtain even such protection as this, the American author is asked to aid in robbing himself of the privilege referred to above, viz., his right to print his manuscript wherever he pleases, by advocating a measure which obliges him to manufacture his book wholly in the United States in order to secure any copyright at all.

ANOTHER WARNING FROM CONNECTICUT.

Two years ago we presented the experience of Connecticut with the Western Reserve Fund as an argument against the scheme of Federal aid to Southern schools. When the State sold her lands in Ohio, the proceeds were devoted to a school fund, and as the fund proved very productive, the income during the early part of this century ranged from $70,000 to $100,000 a year. This was a large sum of money for a small State in those days, and it was expected that it would serve to elevate the standard of public education materially above the level previously reached, when the people had supported their schools entirely by taxation.

But the fund proved to be a curse instead of a blessing. Mr. Charles D. Hine, Secretary of the Board of Education, summarized the effects in a letter to the *Evening Post* published February 6, 1886, which attracted wide attention. "The history of our State," he said, "shows conclusively that at the time when the fund was most productive, yielding $1.40 or $1.50 for each person of the school age, and when towns depended upon it, as they generally did, for the support of their schools, the schools themselves were poor and short. In fact, this was the darkest period of our educational history. A very striking deterioration took place as soon as the fund became productive and the income began to be distributed. Before that period, schools had been maintained at least six months, and at most nearly the whole year, according to the size of the district. After, and not long after, this new source of income was opened, the usual length of schools was reduced to only three months, or just the time that this fund would maintain the schools. The sums which came as gratuities relieved the people of responsibility and deadened their interest, until the schools were continued only so long as the charity lasted." The evil gradually cured itself, as population increased and the fund grew proportionately so small that the people could no longer depend upon it, until Mr. Hine was able to say, "Happily the danger from this direction is passed and cannot return."

This early experience of Connecticut was alone enough to constitute an unanswerable argument against the policy of educational subsidies, but, curiously enough, its force is strengthened by a later experience of the same State with school funds which came unexpectedly from abroad. When the surplus revenue of 1837 was distributed among the States, Connecticut received as her share $764,670, and an extra session of the Legislature was called to decide what should be done with the windfall. It was finally decided, after a stormy and confused discussion which lasted nine days, that the money should be deposited with the several towns, in proportion to their respective populations, on condition that they should keep and preserve it as a deposit and in trust for the State, should repay it into the State Treasury if it should ever be called for, and should appropriate at least one-half of the annual income to the promotion of education in the common schools. In 1855 an act was passed requiring the whole income to be devoted to common schools, so that for nearly two-thirds of the period since the money was received the entire benefit has by law been given to public education.

Mr. Hine has made a thorough investigation as to the history of this fund in every town of the State, and in his recently published annual report he presents a summary of the facts which is very impressive. It appears that, although the original act provided that

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"the principal of this fund shall remain permanent, and no part thereof shall be used for any purposes other than those designatad in this act," which were educational, about five-sevenths of the entire sum has been borrowed by the towns from themselves, as trustees, in times of emergency, and town orders or notes given as security, the whole proceeding in most cases consisting of entries on the books which enabled the towns to use the money without increasing their interest account. In the majority of cases the towns do not regard this sum as a liability, and do not put themselves in the position of borrowers, but have simply taken the fund as though it belonged to them. "In fine," says Mr. Hine, "the towns which were made trustees of a fund devoted to the education of their children, have so far violated the fiduciary relation as to borrow from themselves a fund intended to be permanent, and given upon the condition that it be preserved; and the fund appears, if it appears at all, as debt from the trustee to the beneficiary. In many cases all traces of the fiduciary relation have disappeared, and the town alone enjoys the benefits of the trust in a diminished indebtedness."

The question whether the fund has promoted education is already practically answered by this exposition of its general misappropriation, but Mr. Hine answers it in detail by showing that it does not add in any sense to the sum which towns devote to their public schools, as they would be obliged to raise no more by taxation if the interest reported were to drop out of sight and the fiction of a fund disappear. Its main purpose, he says, has been to relieve towns that were in a tight spot by enabling them to discharge or avoid their debts, and thus diminish their interest charges, and he can find no evidence that it adds to the number of schools, increases attendance, decreases illiteracy, or, indeed, benefits the schools in any way. "The surplus which the general Government bestowed, and which the State endeavored to direct into an educational channel," he says, "has not relieved the State from its responsibility, nor lightened its burden of taxation. The money has drifted away from schools, which must depend, and do depend, upon the liberality of the people."

We may add that the experience of Connecticut in this matter has not been exceptional. In his 'History of the Surplus Revenue of 1837,' Mr. Edward G. Bourne has traced the fate of this fund in each of the States which participated in the "divide," and shown that in nearly every case where it was originally devoted to schools, it has been either entirely lost or so misappropriated that scarcely any permanent advantage has been reaped. One such lesson ought to suffice for the nation, and the warning of 1837 should be heeded by those who have ignorantly supposed that good schools could suddenly be secured by dumping a large slice of the surplus of 1888 into the Southern States. As Mr. Hine well says, in concluding his review of Connecticut's history: "There is no doubt that the present attempt to again distribute to the States a surplus would result as before. Not even a temporary stimulus to education would be afforded; the tendency in every State would rather be to so order things that the gratuity should relieve from all responsibility and endeavor. The honorable public duty of providing free education for all children would be shirked, and the day of educational independence long delayed."

JAPANESE TREATY REVISION.

THIRTY-FOUR years ago the Japanese allowed the thin end of the wedge of diplomacy to be inserted in the closed shell of their isolation. While Perry initiated, in 1854, the main treaty, in which he even exceeded his powers and the orders of his Government, his interpreter, Dr. S. Wells Williams, innocently went still further beyond the demand for supplies and asylum, and introduced the "favored nation" clause, article ix. With the purest of motives, he yet furnished unwittingly a mighty weapon for the humiliation of Japan. In the commercial treaty secured by Townsend Harris in 1859, and in the later conventions obtained by seventeen nations, this clause was copied; and another, conferring exterritoriality, or exemption from the law of the land, was unsuspectingly yielded by the Japanese.

Though unintended and unforeseen by the originators, there has been built upon these contracts a potent engine of oppression that now threatens the very existence of the empire. A system of consular courts has been devised, which is little else than a shield for crime. Eighteen different codes of law are in operation at Yokohama, with as many methods of trial for one crime. The Japanese are practically a conquered nation, so far as their ownership of the sea front, waterways, and land occupied by the seven foreign settlements is concerned. They are not allowed to regulate their own customs, and are held to an agreement forced on them at Ozaka in November, 1865, under the guns of a British man-of-war. They cannot guard the lives of their people by quarantine regulations against contagious diseases. Under menace of war, when a war-ship of the German navy convoyed the *Hesperia* to Yokohama and landed her passengers, they were compelled to allow an infected vessel to bring the cholera scourge to Japan in 1879. As the direct cause of loss of life to the people, this proved to be worse than the bloodiest war known in the empire for four centuries. Though this so-called heathen nation has expended millions of dollars in creating and supporting one of the finest lighthouse systems in the world, she is unable to collect a single penny of tonnage duties on ships lighted to her own ports by her own beacons. The promised revision of treaties has been put off year after year. The costly embassies sent abroad to plead for the repeal of the odious exterritoriality clauses have come back disappointed and heart-sick. Over 3,000 settled Caucasian foreigners live in her five ports and two cities, doing an export and import business amounting to many millions annually, yet paying no taxes except a nominal ground-rent. Japan is thus obliged to lay four-fifths of the burdens of taxation upon her farming population. Despite her high credit abroad, she is considered to be on the verge of bankruptcy.

When the treaties were made a generation ago, the Japanese, long secluded as hermits, were as children in political knowledge. They had only a very limited knowledge of foreigners, and these in the form of marauding or shipwrecked whaling sailors, often of a muscular and violent type, whom they promptly caged, fed, and on opportunity shipped through the Dutch out of the country. Hence, they were only too glad to allow foreigners to control their own criminals, thinking themselves well rid of a bad job. So also in trade questions, apart from points as to exchange of coinage, on which they insisted to their hurt, they willingly yielded first to Mr. Harris and then to Lord Elgin. The hermit in the market-place soon found, however, that these people who had plenty of war-ships became inveterate in interpreting the treaties always in their own favor. In defiance of Japanese law and protest, they fixed precedents first made in conquered countries as a foundation, and then added others, until a lofty structure of "sacred rights guaranteed by treaty" was built that seemed, and has thus far proved, as solid and impregnable as the fortress of Gibraltar. If the Japanese made obstacles, they were threatened with various dire results, and, after tasting bombardment at Shimonoseki and Kagoshima, they could only keep silence, for it was while the country was rent with domestic troubles, and the Yedo Government was in its death throes, that this mighty superstructure arose. When, after 1868, by the genius of the Mikado's ministers, a new government was established and a new nation formed, they found that under cover of the exterritoriality clause the most dishonest and dishonorable acts were committed. Besides, it seemed as if the foreigners were encouraged by their own ministers and consuls to defy wantonly the decencies and proprieties of a sensitive people. Hence, their first movement after feudalism fell was the despatch of an imposing embassy, headed by a noble of highest rank, to plead at the courts of civilized nations for the abrogation of the odious clauses. Despite their assurances that Japan had changed her political and social systems, they were unanimously refused, and returned crestfallen and disappointed.

Nevertheless, unable to command success, the leaders of Japan set to work to deserve it. The mere catalogue of reforms wrought since 1870 is an eloquent plea for justice by treaty. In the difficult and delicate responsibilities of diplomacy, the postal service, steam and coasting traffic, the management of railways, lighthouses, or quarantine—in short, in all the enterprises of public service wherein life must be guarded or the conveniences of civilization secured to foreigners, as well as in the keeping of promises and obligations—the Japanese have proved themselves worthy of confidence, and have extorted the praise of critics for their scru-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pulous fidelity. Persecution abandoned, religions tolerated, hundreds of Christian churches organized and unmolested, and revolutions in caste, dress, social freedom not only permitted, but encouraged, show the earnestness of Japan's desire to part with the Asiatic past, and to enter into the life of the West.

During the long years of her distress the sympathy of but one nation has been made manifest. The United States, though commercially almost wholly a purchaser rather than a seller, has in repeated acts of well-meant, if not complete, justice, shown a desire to do the right towards a weaker neighbor. Withdrawing the steamers of the Pacific Mail Company, and yielding to the Japanese the right to their own coasting trade, and negotiating a postal treaty on equal terms, they accompanied these acts by the purpose to grant Japan the right also to control her own customs. The treaty signed July 25, 1878, and actually ratified and exchanged at Washington April 8, 1879, was made null and inoperative by the tenth article, which proves how closely American diplomacy was then, at least, if not now, in the leading-strings of Europe. That article restricted "the two Governments from giving effect to their convention until, by the voluntary act of each and all the other treaty Powers holding relations with Japan, they shall consent thereto." In other words, the European Powers had threatened Japan with a one-sided application of the "favored nation" clause, and it was not convenient for the United States to be as independent as Fourth of July orations and common profession would indicate, and the matter was dropped. Another act of imperfect justice was the return of the extortion money, known as the Shimonoseki Indemnity Fund, in 1883, shorn, however, of a sum called "prize-money" and of another amount equal to the principal, namely, the accumulated interest for many years at 7 per cent., notwithstanding that the Japanese had borrowed the money of London bankers, paying 9 per cent. To crown all, two years ago the Extradition Treaty was made and ratified. This latter is a fact of great significance, because it implies an approach to equality in criminal law, and the logic and sequence of it must be the abolition of consular courts, with their multiplying scandals. It only remains now to revise the treaties in the interest of righteousness, to abolish in due time exterritoriality, and to grant Japan the recognition of sovereignty.

For the doctrine of exterritoriality, the existence of consular courts, and the general system of diplomacy based on the modern theory of civilization as against barbarism, there was once a reason. So long as in certain countries of Asia or Africa State and Church are one, and politics are based on creed, civilized governments cannot treat them as equals, or allow their citizens to encounter the risks of an inferior jurisdiction saturated or tinctured with fanaticism. Were Japan a religious Power, like Turkey, she might be treated as is Turkey. On the contrary, it is not difficult to show that our Government would be justified in reversing old custom and diplomatic precedent, and yielding in due time the right to Japan to control American citizens residing in the empire. To withdraw from the entangling alliance with European Powers seems the first duty. To recognize the right of Japan to self-government, and abolish consular jurisdiction after sufficient time is given for mutual convenience, is another. Apart from the question of justice to Japan, the only fear, even of the hostile critic, is that her jurisprudence be inferior to our own standard. We have only to remember, however, that such a standard is not demanded of many countries, Russia and the South American republics, for instance; while we must not forget that since 1881 the revised criminal code of Japan has been in excellent working throughout the empire. Torture was long ago abolished, decapitation by the sword ended in August, 1881, and cruel and unusual punishments are now no more. Further, the Japanese expect to furnish such guarantees as will satisfy the reasonable demands of foreigners. Their record of twenty years past, and what we know of them as a people, inspire confidence that what they promise to do they are able to perform. Before the end of 1888 they expect to have their completed codes finished and translated. We therefore hope that the present Administration, which has always with promptness and energy given attention to American interests in Asia, has been noted for its quick removal of incompetent envoys, and has negotiated the Extradition Treaty with Japan, may reopen negotiations for the revision of the old treaties, and crown its achievements by meting out justice to a weaker nation.

THE LATE MRS. ANN BENSON PROCTER.

SINCE the death of Miss Mary Berry, London society, or that part of it which is not wholly given over to commonplace, has lost no one more irreplaceable than Mrs. Procter. The stepdaughter, through her mother's second marriage, of Basil Montagu, she was descended on the spear side from that Scheffer who, with Fust and Gutenberg, makes up the inextricably triune effigy of the inventor of printing. Her mother, through whom she was cousin to the present Archbishop of Canterbury, had, as Miss Benson, been in correspondence with Burns. She herself was the widow of Barry Cornwall and the mother of Adelaide Procter. A more purely literary pedigree were hard to find.

Born with the century, and retaining all her faculties to the last, the mere accumulation of years would have made her a personage, had she no other claim to the distinction. Her death snapped the last living link which united the literary world of to-day with that of more than two generations ago. She had vivid personal recollections of Wordsworth, Coleridge, Keats, Lamb, and Hazlitt, as little sallowed with time as her later memories of Rogers, Hunt, Thackeray, and Dickens; to speak only of the dead. Except Byron and Shelley, she had known, and in some cases intimately, as only an agreeable woman can, every greatly or less renowned English man of letters for the last seventy years. To name her friends is to name them all. Of many she was the intimate correspondent; of not a few the trusted confidante. Clever by natural endowment, she grew constantly more clever by collision with witty and agreeable people to the last. Those who had known her in Wimpole Street, found her even more vivacious in Albert Hale Mansions. Her handwriting of last year had the same untremulous precision it had sixty years ago. She realized for this generation the octogenarian girlhood of Ninon de l'Enclos. To the lovely view which her windows there commanded over the tufted greenery of Kensington Gardens, she was indifferent. Her inner verdancy supplied her. It was the Town she loved, and when she went out of it to make visits (never till the season was over, of course), she would have been bored and cross had she not found a fairish fragment of the Town awaiting her at the country-house.

In her eighty-seventh year she was still a courted and assiduous diner-out, going and coming in her *growler*, nor ever forgiving a hostess who sent her in to dinner with a dull man. On him she avenged herself by saying clever things to him, about which he fumbled uneasily, and then by dramatizing the scene with immitigable *verve* for the more trusted friends at her next Sunday or Tuesday afternoon reception. If not the cleverest woman in London, a thesis which might be not unhopefully maintained, she was beyond question the most thoroughly equipped. Not easily to be matched in narrative, reminiscence, and unprinted or unprintable anecdote, she was past mistress in epigram, repartee, and that bland innuendo which is more deadly the more harmless it seems. A thorough woman of the world, her mind had that easy-going movement, that freedom from jolt or creak, that comes of constancy to long-practised grooves. Scantily endowed on the imaginative side, and vigorously contemptuous of conventional sentiment, she yet had all the graces of mind and phrase which seventy years of unremitted commerce with the pick of society could give. Exigent of the *bienséances*, insisting upon the rigors of the social game, we cannot but fancy that she would have preferred *Et ego in Bohemia* to *Et ego in Arcadia* on her headstone. But it must have been a Bohemia with a seaport and all the other proprieties. She shed cares and sorrows lightly, and her face was pitilessly smooth from any record of them. She was a faithful friend and as faithful a foe. If she had not charity, she had *in full measure* the tolerance which is inculcated by experience. There was only so much woman in her as she could not help—her sex. She seemed to have held over by some occult bequest a reversion of the last century, thoroughly at home though she was in the present. Taken for all in all, she was such a type as we shall not see again. There was a certain hardness in her, not, it seemed, of the natural grain, but the long result of some petrifying process carried far enough for the surface to take a protective polish. Alas, extreme old age has seen and felt so much, has outlived so much, and yet found a relish in life! Nay, she was lovable too in her own way, though she would not have demanded or expected a tear upon her grave. She was a thoroughly brave and self-sufficing soul.

It is hard to conceive of her in that Other World of which she never spoke and perhaps never thought, of her there—with faculties so perfectly and exclusively trained for the conveniences and enjoyments of This. But if her days here had been little given to serious things, yet her keen intellectual interest in the shifting scenery of life saved her from that collapse of character and individuality which sooner or

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

later overtakes the merely frivolous, and makes us wonder if such vague beings can continue. She is gone, we will not doubt, where old friends will be glad to welcome and later friends to follow her. She has left a void in many lives which may not ache, indeed, but which no one else can fill.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

BOSTON, Mass., March 5.

AN interesting phase of the higher education of American women is seen in the position now taken by the leading women's colleges in regard to their requirements for admission. To appreciate fully their present attitude, a résumé of their history on this point is necessary.

When Vassar was opened in 1865, vague ideas of the number and qualifications of the women who demanded a college education prevailed. A huge building was erected, and students were invited to come. No entrance examination was attempted. In the words of the late President Raymond:

"There were no established precedents for a woman's college. Of the 350 students with whom the college began, a respectable minority, say one-third, had been well taught, a few admirably, but of the majority it could not be said with truth that they were thoroughly grounded in anything. The first year, no attempt was made to grade the students by any common standard. *Toward the close of the second year, a part were arranged in classes.*"

Of 352 students, it was necessary to classify 165 as specials and 71 as preparatories. The conclusion was inevitable, that the instruction given in the girls' schools throughout the country was generally inadequate to a suitable preparation for a college course, and that a preparatory department was a necessity. Yet the authorities at Vassar recognized the need of enforcing a high standard of entrance conditions, and as, from time to time, they found themselves supported by public opinion, they increased both the number of subjects and the amount required, and also the thoroughness of the examinations for entrance to the Freshman class.

In 1875, when the two new colleges for women were opened at Northampton and Wellesley, Mass., the position of Vassar in regard to this question of entrance conditions was as follows:

(1.) The requirements for admission, in quantity and quality, were equivalent to those in the best colleges for men, excepting Harvard.

(2.) All examinations were conducted at the college by the faculty.

(3.) The conditions of admission were strictly adhered to.

(4.) None were admitted, on condition, to membership in any class—that is, not until examinations in all the requirements had been passed.

(5.) No one was allowed to *recite* with a college class in any study in which she had not passed an examination on all the requirements for that class in the desired study. A few such advanced students were classified as "specials."

(6.) All other students were classed as "preparatories," even when they had passed in all but one of the requirements for the Freshman class.

(7.) The students were graded as follows: In the four college classes 214, specials 11, preparatories 159.

Wellesley opened in September, 1875, and, accepting all applications for admission to the extent of its accommodations, repeated Vassar's experience of ten years before. Students were received who were deficient even in the preliminaries, and it was found necessary, report said, to give instruction even in arithmetic and the elementary history of the United States. Like Vassar, too, Wellesley had built a large building. Its 300 students slept under a single roof, and ate in one large dining-hall.

In the same month, Smith College, also, received its first pupils. Vassar's acknowledged experience had taught the founders of Smith that the presence in a college of a large number of younger students, as yet unprepared for collegiate studies, affected unfavorably the tone of the whole institution, both socially and intellectually. It was believed that the grade of the secondary schools for girls had sufficiently improved to render a preparatory department at Smith unnecessary, and to make it possible to demand of *all* that standard of preparation required by Yale and Amherst. A private residence was Smith's first dormitory. In his opening address, the President said:

"I believe this is the only female college which insists upon substantially the same requisites for admission which have been found practicable and essential in male colleges. It seems useless to talk about advanced education to those who have not yet reached its starting-point. Unless a college insists upon enough preliminary work to carry out its design, it must soon be encumbered by many who might spend their time more profitably in ordinary schools. Instead of advancing, the teacher is obliged to go back with his pupils, and to consume time which should be devoted to a higher education in wearily expounding the first principles of a lower."

The soundness of this opinion was proved by the effect which immediately followed its enunciation and subsequent application. A hundred students tried the examination. The majority failed. Twenty passed and twelve entered. The moral effect was great. Teachers and pupils began to look towards passing the examinations of Smith College as the worthy goal of a student's ambition. Only such buildings as were absolutely needed were erected. The fear of financial loss, arising from the occupation of a large dormitory by a few students, was avoided.

About this time, the relations of the large State universities to the public-school system began to be generally discussed. Public attention was called to the method of admitting by certificates from the preparatory schools, in place of examination by the college. Michigan University declared that its experience was evidence of the advantages of the new policy. In 1877, the women's colleges had begun to accept new students on certificates, but had not generally adopted the safeguards of the Michigan scheme.

The Faculty of Vassar resolved:

(1.) "That all candidates for the Freshman class, coming from *schools* which have *previously sent students* prepared for *unconditional* admission to that or any higher class in this college, will be admitted without examination here, on the certificate of the *principals* of said schools (based upon a general examination *immediately* before their coming) that they have mastered the entire requisites for admission as set forth in the latest catalogue, or equivalents accepted by the Faculty.

(2.) "That the admission of every such student shall be regarded as probationary until the Faculty, on personal knowledge of the student, shall make it absolute.

(3.) "That this privilege shall be continued, in the case of every such school, until a candidate coming from the same shall, after a fair trial, fail to establish her claim to unconditional membership in the class for which she was recommended."

Under these conditions, four students only were received on the certificates of two schools, and their probation continued for three months. These four students expressed the opinion that to be subjected to a rigorous examination at the preparatory school, and then be held for three months on probation at college, was a doubtful privilege. These rules have since been modified so as to render admission by this method less difficult.

Wellesley was less exacting towards the certificates proffered it. The written statement of a country high school, in another State, that within two years its students had passed a satisfactory examination in all the required studies, was acceptable. If studies, such as geometry and algebra, had been pursued in the first years of that high-school course, the students reviewed and took an examination in these only, before receiving their certificate. It is not known what per cent. of Wellesley's students at this time were thus admitted. The number of certificates received was undoubtedly large.

At Smith, also, a change had taken place. Of 133 students enrolled that year, 20 per cent. were specials, and a large part of all had been admitted by certificates. The following is one form which received the approval of the College:

"This is to certify that ——— is a graduate of the ——— High School, having pursued a four years' classical course, and that she has maintained a good rank in scholarship and deportment. ——— HEAD MASTER."

This was intended merely as a formal "testimonial of character," and was given as well to every youth taking the Harvard examinations. At Smith, this certificate was received in lieu of an examination in all subjects, even Latin and Greek, save geometry and algebra. Admission on certificates was followed by an eleven-fold increase of students at Smith.

The public too often judges the success of any educational institution by the numbers of its students. The trustees are often business men who realize the relation of the income of a college to the number of its paying students, and are apt to emphasize that source of funds when the need of an extension of its educational facilities is urged upon their attention. The President of ——— himself realizes that "it is possible for the college at any time to greatly increase its income by lowering its standard, and receiving, without regard to qualifications, the large numbers who apply for admission." During the last ten years, the number admitted to all these colleges on certificates has greatly increased, and was larger last year than ever before. At Wellesley, it is reported, 150 certificates were accepted. Vassar still holds the most conservative position.

All these colleges now issue printed forms of certificates. An examination of them discloses how cumbrous the system is, how many exceptions to the rule prevail, how easily the instructor may shirk the responsibility for a student's failure after she has entered college, and how numerous are the opportunities for abuses to creep in. Stated generally, certificates are now accepted from "approved" schools and *individuals*. This approval has been based upon actual experience in educating pupils prepared at the school, or a visit by one or more of the college faculty, the recommendation of a trustee of the college, or a self-appointed committee of alumnæ, or even a "mutual friend." These "visits," it is said, have sometimes proved purely social in their nature. Usually, no limit is placed to the time during which this privilege shall hold good.

Enough has been said to indicate the direction in which the policy of these colleges now tends. The advocates of the certificate system hold that it increases the number of students enjoying the privileges of the college; that it

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

increases the available income; that it avoids a nervous excitement which necessarily attends entrance examination; that it affords a connection with the public and private secondary schools beneficial alike to school and college; and that, to quote the recent statements of the President of Brown University, "the whole system of depending upon formal examinations is a humbug," and "a certificate of competency from a trustworthy teacher is eminently preferable to these formalities."

The opponents of the certificate scheme hold that the weight of authority is against that system, and point, as examples, to Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Cornell, and Johns Hopkins University; that few students, who are *properly prepared* and accustomed to written examinations, suffer from a nervous dread of the college examinations; that a thorough written examination in the subjects required for admission to college extending over several days accurately gauges a student's knowledge of such elementary subjects, and is distinctly opposed to a success resulting merely from a process of cramming; that a connection with secondary schools which lowers the standard of the college is of questionable value to either school or college.

Moreover, justice to all those students who have faithfully submitted themselves to the college's published requirements, and have presented themselves fully prepared in all subjects, demands that the same standard shall be exacted uniformly from all. A competent instructor meets the level of the average intelligence of his class, and it is manifestly unjust to the best students to increase the natural inequalities of a class by a failure on the part of the college to enforce its own conditions. And surely, it is not the function of college officers to travel about the country passing judgment upon preparatory schools. Nor can the college reasonably expect that those schools will be more efficient in maintaining a standard which the college itself has failed to enforce. While it is not claimed that all students entering on certificates are ill-trained—such an assumption would be absurd—it is held that a larger number of students "not well-grounded in anything" enter the women's colleges every year under the present system, and it is a very delicate matter to dismiss students, when once admitted, who, after a residence of two or three months, are proved to have been, through no fault of their own, insufficiently prepared.

It is time that those who have the true interests of the higher education of women at heart, and who believe in the great advantages which spring from a residence in the cultivated and scholarly atmosphere of the best academical seats of learning, should utter a protest against this baneful system of admission by certificates, and ask that public opinion should demand a return to the honorable position held by Vassar ten years ago. A. Y.

DICKENS IN GENOA.

GENOA, February 23, 1888.

ALTHOUGH Dickens was endowed with quick perceptions and a ready sympathy with whatever he saw, his manner of working was too methodical, and his interest lay too much in England, for him to be greatly affected by his surroundings when in the act of composition, or for his novels to show many traces of his life on the Continent.

We all know the picture of his favorite writing-table at Gadshill, and he could do no work, either at Genoa or Lausanne, or Paris or Boulogne, unless his table were placed in the same way in front of the window, with the same orderly arrangement of paper and pens, knives and weights, and of the cheap and tasteless little ornaments, each one of which had for him some particular meaning. 'Dombey and Son' was begun at Lausanne and finished in Paris; his second Christmas story, 'The Chimes,' was suggested to him by the ringing of the bells at Genoa, the sound of which came up to his windows from every quarter of the town. In the 'Tale of Two Cities,' the scene is laid partly in Paris, and the story was suggested by his residence there. Apart from that, only one incident in 'Dombey and Son,' and a portion of 'Little Dorrit,' seem to contain any references to his journeys on the Continent. 'Martin Chuzzlewit,' of course, sprang from his American trip, and was written with a distinct object; but, unlike the 'American Notes,' the 'Pictures from Italy' did not blossom into a novel.

This book, which is unjustly depreciated by most, but of which the charm for me has not gone after several re-readings, was begun in the form of letters in the first number of the *Daily News*. Delightful as it is, it by no means equals the private letters from which it was made up—at least so far as we can tell from those published by his children, and the extracts given by Forster, who refused to publish anything "resembling his printed books however distantly." Forster's work is not so much a biography of Dickens, in spite of its title, as an account of Dickens's relations with Forster. This rendered necessary the publication of additional volumes of letters, thereby affording a new pleasure to those who enjoy Dickens's letters more than his novels. In all of them, and especially in those from Italy, Dickens displays not only his power of vivid and picturesque description, but an instantaneous perception, sympathy, and clear-sightedness, which is only occasionally led astray by reflection based on a supposed knowledge, turning out at times to be either insufficient or erroneous.

When, in the winter of 1844, Dickens decided to go to Italy for a year, he had thoughts of Nice, and wrote to Lady Blessington to know "whether this same Nice be a healthy place the year through, whether it be reasonably cheap, pleasant to look at and to live in, and the like." D'Orsay strenuously insisted that there was no place for headquarters like Pisa; but Genoa was finally decided upon, and, by my Lady's advice, it was arranged to take for the summer a villa in the suburb of Albaro (where he arrived with all his family, having driven post from Calais to take a steamer at Marseilles), at an expense altogether of about two hundred pounds. He found out afterwards that he could have had the Villa Doria at Pegli, "a wonderful house, full of the most unaccountable pictures and the most incredible furniture," with a great park and woods, for £40 a year; but a stupid friend had hired for him, at an exorbitant price, a common Italian country-house, badly furnished, although with a lovely view and in the midst of fine vineyards. This was the Villa Buonavista, or, as it was called from the name of the proprietor, Bagnerello, which, from its color and some peculiarity of the courtyard, Dickens nicknamed the Pink Jail. He had hoped to get the villa in which Byron had lived, but that was close to the main road, and had even then been turned into the disreputable wine-shop which it is still.

To get to the Pink Jail it was necessary to go through narrow lanes with sharp turns, and his carriage had first to be measured to see if it could pass, as a few days before the carriage of some grand lady had got stuck, and she had to be pulled through the front window. Even lately, on my first pilgrimage, some well-intentioned persons who met us warned us of the danger, and suggested a different and round-about road. But the coachman exhorted me to have courage, and brought me safely to the house. The next-door neighbor of Dickens, and one of his great friends, was the French Consul-General, who had married an English lady, and had even written about his earlier novels in a French review. He says: "Their house is next to ours on the right, with vineyards between; but the place is so oddly contrived that one has to go a full mile round to get to their door." This is a pardonable exaggeration, unless old lanes were strangely unnoticed by Dickens, but has been construed as a fact by his biographer, who was never there. A similar statement, which comes only from the fancy of a nervous temperament, is that of his sufferings from the sirocco, in the first week of his stay, described as if he were in the interior of the Sahara; it being a notorious fact that foreigners experience rather pleasant than unpleasant sensations from the sirocco blowing over the sea during their first year in Italy.

It is impossible to refrain from quoting a passage from a letter to Maclise, because, with its exaggerations, it so exactly expresses the effect of summer on the Riviera:

"When the sun sets clearly, then, by Heaven, it is majestic! From any one of eleven windows here, or from a terrace overgrown with grapes, you may behold the broad sea; villas, houses, mountains, forts strewn with rose-leaves, strewn with thorns—stifled in thorns! Dyed through and through and through. For a moment. No more. The sun is impatient and fierce, like every one else in these parts, and goes down headlong. Run to fetch your hat—and it's night. Wink at the right time of black night—and it's morning. Everything is in extremes. There is an insect here (I forget his name, and Fletcher and Roche are both out) that chirps all day. There is one outside the window now. The chirp is very loud—something like a Brobdingnagian grasshopper. The creature is born to chirp—to progress in chirping—to chirp louder, louder, louder—till it gives one tremendous chirp and bursts itself. That is its life and death. Everything is in a concatenation accordingly. The day gets brighter, brighter, brighter, till it's night. The summer gets hotter, hotter, hotter, till it bursts. The fruit gets riper, riper, riper, till it tumbles down and rots."

On the 1st of October Dickens moved into Genoa, where he had an apartment in a palace which even still occupies the finest site in the town. It is that large, stately square house, then called the Palazzo Peschiere, standing high up above the promenade of Acquasola, at that time let in apartments. On a subsequent visit in 1853 Dickens found it occupied as a girls' school; but it is now restored to its original purpose, and is again the residence of a single family. During his winter in Genoa Dickens, of course, walked through every street and alley, and over all the surrounding country, by night as well as by day, though he missed what he saw in his night walks through the London streets, of which he sadly complains; for he was deprived of all that put him into a mood fit for the field of writing which he had chosen. He made an excursion along the Cornice road to Marseilles; found time for a hasty trip to London to read his new Christmas story, 'The Chimes,' to his friends; and was able to make a much more leisurely journey to Florence, Rome, and Naples.

Genoa has greatly changed since Dickens knew it, although he found much that was new on his second visit, and speaks of a new and fine café with gardens, next to the new Municipality, which had ousted pupils and teachers from the Jesuit college—a café which we seem to recognize as the Concordia, the only good

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

restaurant in northern Italy, except Doney's at Florence, Franconi's at Como, and Quadri's at Venice. Mediterranean and American commerce and the opening of the St. Gothard tunnel have so increased Genoese trade that, with the demolition of the charming old marble promenade and the construction of new moles, quays, and warehouses, even the appearance of the Port is altered. The town stretches now almost to Sestri on one side, and fills up all the valley on the other as far as Albaro. By the side of the Palazzo Peschiere runs the long new Via Assarotti with its great piles of buildings, but a part of the Peschiere Palace gardens still remains. The old gate at the foot of the Acquasola has given place to a fine paved square, with statues of Vittorio Emmanuele and of Mazzini; and the villetta of Dickens's old friend, the Marchese di Negro, is now a public garden and museum.

Dickens gives a very amusing description of the Marchese, whom he calls a "very fat and much older Jerdan, with the same thickness of speech and size of tongue. He was Byron's friend, keeps open house here, writes poetry, improvises, and is a very good old Blunderbore; just the sort of instrument to make an artesian well with anywhere." The quality which so particularly amused and enraged Dickens was the mania of the Marchese for reciting his own verses on all occasions. The description of him, which is far too long to quote, is vivid and on the whole not ill-natured; indeed, one may believe it not exaggerated after seeing the bust of the Marchese now in front of the door. Nevertheless, the little foibles of this gentleman were far more leniently judged by his countrymen, and, if we may believe the letters of Giordani and others, his acquaintance was sought for and appreciated by literary men.

I cannot help copying a passage about the new Governor to whom Dickens had been told he should pay his respects—a ceremony from which he was excused by the tact of the Consul:

"'Where's the great poet?' said the Governor. 'I want to see the great poet.' 'The great poet, your Excellency,' said the Consul, 'is at work writing a book, and begged me to make his excuses.' 'Excuses!' said the Governor, 'I wouldn't interfere with such an occupation for all the world. Pray tell him that my house is open to the honor of his presence when it is perfectly convenient for him, but not otherwise. And let no gentleman,' said the Governor, a-surveyin' his suite with a majestic eye, 'call upon Signor Dickens till he is understood to be disengaged.' And he sent some one with his own cards next day. Now, I do *seriously* call this real politeness and pleasant consideration—not positively American, but still gentlemanly and polished."

Unfortunately, the published letters give us little information as to the real friends Dickens made in Genoa, who welcomed him back so warmly on his visit ten years later. We only know that the last few days of his stay, when the establishment was being broken up, he passed at the Palazzo Rosso above the Vandyke Picture Gallery, as the guest of Mme. Delarue, whose death last year is still deplored.

Of the novels it is only 'Little Dorrit' that shows the influence of Dickens's stay in Italy. The scene in the Monastery on the St. Bernard is, so far as we can tell from the letters, and from a confession in a letter from M. Cerjat, almost a description of his journey with that gentleman and other friends from Lausanne. The little pictures of Italian post stations and country towns, and the sketches of Venice and of life there, are mere reproductions of the author's actual impressions, and could only have been drawn by one who had been on the spot. These bits are so excellent as to counterbalance the many defects of the story. E. S.

Correspondence.

DR. VON HOLST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am much obliged to your correspondent "N. Z." for calling my attention to the article in the *Zeitschrift*. Dr. von Holst is no friend of republican or parliamentary government, as shown not merely in his writings, but by the fact, very rare in my experience with Germans, that, after living some time in this country, he has preferred to return and make his home in Germany.

But as to the particular point, the want of influence other than negative, by the President as to legislation, I do not see that "N. Z." has disproved the argument. What difference does it make in this respect that the President's voice bears any particular proportion to the Congressional vote? Congress passes a measure and the President vetoes or negatives it. Is his veto any more or less negative if it takes sixty-six or twice that number of votes to overcome it? If it required a unanimous vote, how would that give the veto any positive power? Positive power means at least a share in *creating* legislation, which the veto does not and cannot have. "N. Z." says that the President and Cabinet can introduce measures through members of Congress. So can I or any man, and in either case the attention which such bills receive from the committees will depend upon the personal or party gain which the members see in it. On any other ground, a bill presented by the Executive has very little advantage over one from anybody else—in some respects less, on account of the jealousy which Congress as a body always feels towards the other branch.

"The conspicuous instance of the Tariff Bill," instead of upsetting the Professor's theory, seems to me to work just the other way and to confirm it. The country has seldom been stirred by any President's message as by the last of Mr. Cleveland. But the "Mills" bill, which I suppose is the most prominent one, is not identified with the President at all. It may embody his ideas, but I do not believe that one person in ten thousand in this country knows whether it does or not. There is an active campaign in tariff discussion going on in this neighborhood, but, so far as I can learn, it does not turn upon this or any other bill. It deals with the generalities of protection and free trade, and the effect of protection upon wages. Neither has the President endorsed publicly the Mills or any other bill. He has simply uttered some general ideas.

It seems incredible that Congress should allow this session to pass without touching the tariff, and I do not venture to predict that it will. But I always have believed it, and believe it now, on the ground of the tremendous power of the lobby and the want of positive power in the President, unless by underhand intrigue, which I pay him the compliment to believe he will not use. It is this problem which I am watching with intense curiosity, and, if it turns out so, shall have a word to say.

Dr. von Holst says that it is not possible for our Cabinet to take part in the proceedings and debates of Congress without a thorough overhauling and reconstruction of the Constitution. That seems to me the state of mind, not uncommon among foreigners towards this country, of a man who sees somebody having a great many things which he would like, but who comforts himself with the idea that he has exclusive possession of something which the other man would like but cannot have. In the same strain Bagehot says: "The Americans have many excellent things, but this they have not and cannot have." In answer, I will simply refer again to the Senate Report of February 4, 1881, signed unanimously by eight Senators of both parties, which recommends the admission of the Cabinet to seats with the right of debate in both houses; and, after saying that the advantages of this course are too obvious to need discussion, proceeds to demonstrate its entire compatibility with the Constitution as it stands. G. B.

Boston, March 24, 1888.

BOOKS IN THE TARIFF BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Tariff Bill submitted by the House Committee is in the main a step in the right direction. But in one respect at least it is only faint-hearted: I mean in regard to books. The bill recommends putting on the free list books printed in foreign languages, but leaves English books subject to a duty of 25 per cent. Why this invidious distinction? Is it tenable in moral, or even in political, law? For years the friends of learning in America have borne the book-tariff with ever-increasing murmurs. And now, when our hopes of a reform seem to be about to be realized, we get *half a loaf!* We are apparently doomed to see the trashiest productions of France and Germany admitted free, and the science, art, history, poetry, and belles-lettres of England still subject to the most degrading tax that ever disgraced civilization.

The House Committee cannot plead ignorance. I have good reason for supposing that a plain and comprehensible statement of facts was laid before them, in three points: first, that the book-tariff was wholly unnecessary to the maintenance of Government; second, that it bore heavily upon those who were least able to bear taxation, viz., the studying class; third, that even from the protectionist point of view it was wholly unnecessary, inasmuch as books were not articles of merchandise in the ordinary sense, and did not compete upon a pecuniary basis. If the Committee were in doubt upon any one of these points, could they not have got further and more explicit information from the real "book-makers" of the country? Why, let me ask again, are French and German books to be free and English to remain taxed? We proclaim to the world that we are afraid of the only nation that speaks our language, that enjoys the same political and religious freedom. We go on saying to every teacher and reader of the grand old English literature: You are a fool, and you shall pay for your folly.

Only one English book is to be duty free, the Bible. That is to say, the only book that is above question of authorship, the only book which *is in competition.* Oxford and Cambridge are to be free to compete with our Bible societies. The idea of competition is not my invention. I merely take it as I find it. But truly it must savor of irony, that the Bible *makers* of England are to be encouraged to crowd out the Bible *makers* of America. Does not this feature partake largely of cant?

Our legislators are occasionally surprised to discover themselves held in slight esteem by the literary classes. They occasionally find out that Representative passes for a joke, and Senator for a byword. The explanation may be learned by whoever seeks for it. In part it is suggested above. M.

Cincinnati, March 19, 1888.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

A QUESTION OF INDEBTEDNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The review of my 'Two Chapters on the Mediæval Guilds of England' in the *Nation* of March 15, contains, by implication, several charges to which I feel bound to reply. These consist in the inferences that my obligations to the works of Gross and Ochenkowski are deeper than I confessed in the preface and footnotes; that my essay is simply a condensation; and that my references were taken from the German works so carefully as even to follow their mistakes.

I should be sorry to underrate my obligations in chapter i to Dr. Gross, and took pains to acknowledge my indebtedness. Not only do I state in the preface that Dr. Gross "deserves all the credit for setting the subject in its proper light," but I make no less than fifteen references in the notes, such as, "Gross was the first to clear up the confusions," "first refuted by Gross," "cf. in general Gross," etc., etc. (pp. 13, 15, 16, 22, 23, 28, 29, 31, 34, 35, 39, 41, 42, 45). At the same time I must protest against the assumption that my chapter is only a condensation, not based on original researches. I may assert with confidence that there is not a single reference to any page or authority which has been taken at second hand, and which has not been carefully scrutinized by me. The review maintains that my arguments, illustrations, and authorities are simply those of Dr. Gross. This again is unfair. Among the arguments adduced by me, but not mentioned by Dr. Gross, are these: The distinction between guild member and burgess, because of admission of prelates (p. 38), and of women (p. 42); the distinction between guild merchant and borough (p. 41); the whole relation between craft guilds and guild merchant (pp. 57-60 and *passim*); the denial of Gross's statement as to the origin of the merchant guild (pp. 16, 17), etc. Among the illustrations not mentioned by Gross, are some on pages 22, note 4; 23, n. 4; 25, n. 1, 2, 3; 27, n. 1; 27, n. 5; 28, n. 3; 31, n. 3; 33, n. 1, 2, 3; 37, n. 5; 38, n. 6; 45, n. 1; 46, n. 6; 47, n. 2; 48, n. 1, 3. Among the authorities not mentioned by Gross, but used by me are: Corry, History of Bristol; Deering, Notinghamia; Historic Documents of Ireland; Palmer, Perlustration of Great Yarmouth; a History of Preston; Reader, History of Reading; Regiam Majestatem; Scaum, Beverlac; Seymour and Marchant's London; Throsby's Leicester; Warden's Dundee; Woodward's Hampshire, etc. That most of the remaining authorities are to be found in Gross is natural. They are the common property of all scholars, and are mentioned, almost without an exception, in the works of Brady, Madox, Thompson, Stubbs, Merewether, and Stephens. It was through these works that I was referred to the sources during the years 1882-83, and it was only when the chapter had been substantially written that Dr. Gross's essay appeared. It is true that my conclusions are mainly identical with his, but in many cases both his and mine are also identical with those of other authors, and in some cases we do not agree. I have yet to learn that any one is precluded from arriving at the same conclusions as his fellow-workers, especially when he makes continual reference to them, or from using any material to which attention has been called repeatedly. Not a single illustration is used by me at second hand. The only instance on which the review depends for a contrary imputation, is that Walworth is printed for Walford in two cases. This is entirely unfair, as in both these cases (pp. 35, 67) there is only a simple general reference to the author's name as Walworth, but without giving any specific reference. Whenever reference is made to any specific page or volume (and this alone can be called a reference to authority), the name is correctly spelled Walford (cf. p. 15) —a point which ought not to have escaped the reviewer's attention. In the light of all these facts, it seemed to me that I was certainly giving Dr. Gross all due credit, and in a sufficiently "unequivocal" manner.

As to chapter ii and Ochenkowski the matter is still plainer. Here I give entire arguments of which no account is to be found in the German work. So the theory as to the origin of the crafts (pp. 50-58, 59, 63); the economic significance of the crafts (p. 75); the error of Ochenkowski in overlooking the municipal influence (pp. 79, *et seq.*), etc. In this chapter there are scores of new points and references unknown to the German work, and yet I expressly state in the preface that the essay "is in harmony with many of [his] conclusions," and refer to him in the notes in most of the important points.

I submit that a work, fragmentary though it may be, which was the result of eighteen months of laborious and detailed research, does not deserve the epithet of a "condensation," and that the assumption of disingenuousness is both unwarrantable and unjust.—Truly yours,

Edwin R. A. Seligman.

New York, March 23, 1888.

A FAMILIAR QUOTATION TRACED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 1186 of the *Nation*, page 243, in your interesting review of 'Bracton's Note Book,' occur these words:

"As regards one of the Latin phrases quoted in this passage—when Bracton says, 'licet nihil certius sit morte, nihil tamen incertius est hora mortis,' and the annotator says, 'nihil certius morte, nihil incertius hora mortis,' the suspicion arises that both may be using some familiar quotation or commonplace; and Mr. Maitland does not overlook this.

'Mors incertarum rerum certissima cunctis,
Incertum quando, certum aliquando mori';

so run certain seemingly monkish lines of unknown origin," etc.

Then, after a quotation from Chaucer, the review proceeds: "Perhaps the 'nihil certius morte' will hardly be found in any classical author."

I do not know where these exact words may be found in a classical author, but is not this familiar passage from Cicero (Cato Maior, sec. 74), sufficiently near in sentiment and phrase to be the source, possibly, of the commonplace: "Moriendum enim certe est, et incertum an hoc ipso die. Mortem igitur omnibus horis *impendentem timens, qui poterit animo consistere*"? Seneca in several passages expresses a like sentiment. In Ep. 30 are these words: "hora illa inevitabilis"; in Ep. 26: "Incertum est quo te loco mors exspectet: itaque tu illam omni loco exspecta"; in Consolat. ad Marciam, 10: "Nihil de hodierna die promittitur, . . . nihil de hac hora. Festinandum est, instat a tergo mors"; again, *ibid.*: "Nos oportet in promptu habere, quæ in incertum diem data sunt." In another passage from the Epistles, quoted by Aldus Manutius, which at this moment I cannot verify, Seneca says, "In tanta volutatione rerum humanarum, nihil cuiquam, nisi mors, certum," which is not greatly different from the passage from Bracton.

The quotation from Cicero is so near at hand that I have hesitated to call attention to it, but possibly it may prove serviceable to some one.

I am, respectfully yours,

William Carey Poland.

Brown University, Providence, R. I., March 23.

DR. JOHNSON'S ATTIC BULL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The first time I heard Dr. Johnson's famous definitions of "attic" and "garret" referred to, it was in a lecture given in my boyhood, in a New York village, by a professor from Hamilton College. Having access later to a first edition of the noted Dictionary, I speedily turned to the above words to see how the Johnsonese looked, but I looked in vain for "attic." It is not in the book. Miss Isabel Hapgood's reference, in the last *Nation*, to the words prompts me to state that the definition sought for may be found after "cockloft," thus: "The room over the garret, in which fowls are supposed to roost, unless it be rather corrupted from *coploft*, the *cop* or *top* of the house." Garret is defined, "A room on the highest floor in the house." The Doctor's quotation from Swift implies that his versions of the words were common in his day: "My garrets, or rather my *cocklofts*, indeed are very indifferently furnished; but they are rooms to lay lumber in."

Again, Dryden, translating Juvenal, says:

"*If the lowest floors already burn,*
Cocklofts and garrets soon will take their turn."

As used in these extracts, the words do not seem unreasonable, and a careful reading of the definitions fails to discover the ridiculous features so often ascribed to them.

Alfred S. Roe.

Worcester, Mass., March 23, 1888.

Notes.

Still another life of the Emperor William I. is announced, by Belford, Clarke & Co. The author is Gen. Hermann Lieb.

Ticknor & Co., Boston, publish immediately 'Agatha Page: A Parable,' by Isaac Henderson, and 'Isidra,' a Mexican novel by Willis Steell. Later in the season they will issue 'The Pilgrim Republic,' an historical review of the Colony of New Plymouth, by John A. Goodwin; 'Felix Mendelssohn's Letters to Ignaz and Charlotte Moscheles,' translated and edited by Felix Moscheles; 'Homestead Highways,' by Herbert M. Sylvester; 'Sketches Abroad,' by J. A. Schweinfurth, architect; 'Along the Shore,' poems by Rose Hawthorne Lathrop; 'The Ethics of Boxing and Manly Sport,' by John Boyle O'Reilly; and the following novels: 'Olivia Delaplaine,' by Edgar Fawcett; 'An Uncloseted Skeleton,' by Lucretia P. Hale and Edwin Lassetter Bynner; 'A Mexican Girl,' by Frederick Thickstun; and 'Len Gansett,' by Opie P. Read.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce 'His Broken Sword,' a novel, by Miss Winnie L. Taylor.

Prof. A. Melville Bell means to demonstrate the fitness of English for adoption as the universal language, in a work, 'World-English,' to be shortly issued in this city by N. D. C. Hodges. It involves an amended alphabet for phonetic spelling.

'Voltaire's Prose,' edited for schools by Adolphe Cohn; 'Selections from Boccaccio's Decamerone,' by Prof. A. Marshall Elliott; and 'Meissner's Children's Own German Book,' adapted for American use by Prof. Edward S. Joynes, are among D. C. Heath & Co.'s announcements in modern languages.

Dr. F. Holthausen is preparing for the "Sammlung kurzer Grammatiken germanischer Dialekte," edited by Braune and published by Niemeyer, a grammar of modern English.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Prof. Cappeller of Jena has in preparation an English edition of his Sanskrit dictionary, the German edition of which was completed in the summer of 1887. It will contain all the words found in those texts which are generally read during the first two or three years of a Sanskrit course. It is based upon the St. Petersburg dictionary, but has the great advantage over Böhtlingk's 'Kurzgefasstes [3 vols. !] Wörterbuch' that it is complete in one handy volume.

All students of syntax as well as all students of Sanskrit will be gratified to learn that Prof. Delbrück's (Jena) Vedic Syntax, a work to which he has exclusively devoted himself for the past six years, is shortly to appear from the press of the Buchhandlung des Waisenhauses (Halle).

The Clarendon Press will, on a guarantee of fifty guineas in sums of two guineas, reproduce by the Collotype process a series of at least ten large maps of properties in Oxfordshire belonging to some of the colleges, and all dating from the beginning of the seventeenth century. They illustrate not only the open-field system, but the topography of the country. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Mowat, Pembroke College, Oxford. Should there be fifty, the pledge will be reduced one-half.

Prizes of $500 and $200 are offered by Mr. Henry Lomb of Rochester, N. Y., through the American Public Health Association, for the two best essays on "Practical, Sanitary, and Economic Cooking adapted to Persons of Moderate and Small Means." They must be sent to Dr. Irving A. Watson, Concord, N. H., on or before September 15, 1888, with the writer's name in a sealed envelope. Dr. Watson, who is the Secretary of the Association, can supply copies of four previous prize essays elicited by Mr. Lomb, on "Healthy Homes and Foods for the Working Classes," by Prof. Victor C. Vaughan; "The Sanitary Conditions and Necessities of School-houses and School Life," by Dr. D. F. Lincoln; "Disinfection," by Dr. Geo. M. Sternberg; and "The Preventable Causes of Disease, Injury, and Death in American Manufactories," etc., by Geo. H. Ireland.

Mr. W. F. Taylor is editing for publication the marginal notes writen by Coleridge in the books owned or borrowed by him. A limited issue in quarto form, with three portrait illustrations, will be made to subscribers by David Nutt, London.

The Publication Agency of the Johns Hopkins University has made a tasteful pamphlet of the proceedings at the unveiling of the bust of Sidney Lanier on February 3. It contains poems, papers, and letters, and a bibliography, and lacks only a portrait, or a view of the bust, to be a complete summary of the occasion. Two copies will be sold for one dollar.

Mr. Benj. R. Tucker of Boston has undertaken the translation, publication, and sale of the complete works of J. P. Proudhon, which are expected to comprise about fifty volumes. Volume first has already appeared, and volume fourth—'System of Economical Contradictions'—is now before us. Since Mr. Tucker has decided that the work was worth doing at all, we can only say that, so far as the translation and publication are concerned, he seems to have thought that it was worth doing well.

The first volume of a new series, "Twelve English Statesmen," published by Macmillan & Co., has just appeared. The series aims "to present in historic order the lives and work of those leading actors in our affairs who, by their direct influence, have left an abiding mark on the policy, the institutions, and the position of Great Britain among States," and "is intended to form a continuous narrative of English freedom, order, and power." The illustrious twelve are William the Conqueror, Henry II., Edward I., Henry VII., Wolsey, Elizabeth, Oliver Cromwell, William III., Walpole, Chatham, Pitt, and Peel. Among the contributors to the series are E. A. Freeman, F. York Powell, M. Creighton, Frederick Harrison, and John Morley. 'William the Conqueror,' by Edward A. Freeman, is the first of the twelve monthly instalments. In comparing his 'Short History of the Norman Conquest' with this new work, the author says (p. v): "That was a narrative of events reaching over a considerable period of time. This is the portrait of a man in his personal character, a man whose life takes up only a part of the time treated of in the other work." It is almost unnecessary to state that no one was better fitted than Freeman to write this biography, and that the series opens most auspiciously.

Two new volumes have been added to the series "English History from Contemporary Writers," viz.: 'Strongbow's Conquest of Ireland,' 1166-1188, by Francis P. Barnard; and 'Simon de Montfort and his Cause,' 1251-1266, by Rev. W. H. Hutton (London: D. Nutt; New York: Putnams). The former "tells the story of the first contact between the newly organized feudalism of Anglo-Norman England and the far older and primitive civilization of the last independent Keltic States." Mr. Hutton's 'Simon de Montfort' is more ably compiled than his other work in the same series, 'The Misrule of Henry III.' He conveys a wrong impression when he states, on p. 47, that Henry III. sold the Jews of England to Earl Richard of Cornwall. In reality, the revenues accruing from the Jews were temporarily assigned or mortgaged to the Earl, in order that, as Matthew Paris tells us, "he might eviscerate those whom the King had excoriated." The royal revenues from important towns such as Bristol and Exeter were often transferred in a similar way. Mr. Barnard's and Mr. Hutton's volumes are both excellent contributions to the series; they will aid in bringing the public in closer touch with the periods of which they treat.

The second volume of the Henry Irving Shakspere (Scribner & Welford) contains the second and third parts of "Henry VI.," "The Taming of the Shrew," "Midsummer Night's Dream," and "Richard II." The general plan of the work we have already spoken of. The special features of this volume are the condensation of "Henry VI." made by Charles Kemble and printed from his MS., in Henry Irving's possession, and the citation of the Egerton MS. "Richard II.," an acting play later than Shakspere (c. 1630) of which Halliwell-Phillipps once printed eleven copies. To Kemble's condensation we may recur hereafter. The work of the editor is very well done, as in the previous volume.

Mr. Lewis Sergeant's new 'Government Year Book' (London: Unwin; New York: White & Allen) explains itself as "a record of the forms and methods of government in Great Britain, her colonies, and foreign countries," and justly claims for itself a certain originality. Its scheme may be said to be comparative and philosophical rather than statistical. The more or less fixed portions analyze the constitutions (in the largest sense) of the several countries, quoting nearly in full the charter of the United States and the French Republic's organic law of July, 1875. The renewable portions are reviews of political events of the previous year (1887), so far as these bear on inner questions of state, or international relations. We cannot say that we think the editor quite qualified for his task, either by lucidity and condensation of style or by intellectual grasp. Still, the execution is respectable and may be improved. We remark convenient lists of treaties and other international conventions since 1815 (the number of which is increasing most significantly), and of the principal British Cabinet Ministers from 1869 to 1888; and a tabular view of the forms of government in the world. A queer sentence on p. 300 is worth quoting (italics ours): "The Civil War between the North and South in 1861-65 not only brought about the emancipation of the slaves, but also confirmed the claim of the Union to prevent by force the secession of particular States. *In this not very satisfactory manner* the greatest of the federal republics dealt with the most formidable of the dangers which beset the path of every federation."

From Cupples & Hurd, Boston, we receive a fresh edition of Mr. W. H. Whitmore's incomparably ingenious and compact 'Ancestral Tablets'—a collection of diagrams for pedigrees, "so arranged that eight generations of the ancestors of any person may be recorded in a connected and simple form"; and W. P. W. Phillimore's 'How to Write the History of a Family,' of which we shall have something to say hereafter.

In the fourth volume of the *Forum* the labor question, in one form or another, asserts its supreme interest. "What is the Object of Life?" was also a concern to several writers, and more yet had to tell of "Books That Have Helped Me." In this last series the permanent value appears to us to lie far more in the autobiography than in the spiritual experience related. The rest of the table of contents shows the usual range of political, literary, and ethical discussion.

The *Universal Review*, a monthly periodical having an international character, is announced to be launched in England in May.

Mr. Hamerton resumes, in the March *Portfolio* (Macmillan), his dialogue over "Book Illustration," beginning with the question of its utility. The "Scientist" upholds it in imaginative literature as a stimulus to the reader's imagination. If the artist falls short of the author, so does the unaided reader. "It is quite a mistake to suppose that when you read 'The Newcomes,' you see in your mind's eye exactly the Colonel Newcome that Thackeray saw. Doyle's conception of the Colonel is not Thackeray's either; but it may be more vivid and more consistent than your own." The "Critic" (Mr. Hamerton) reports that "Anthony Trollope was extremely pleased with Millais's illustrations to his novels," and George Eliot no less with Leighton's to 'Romola,' especially his conception of Tito, "one of her favorite creations." Dickens said of Seymour that he made Mr. Pickwick a reality, and Thackeray used to praise Frederick Walker. Mr. Hamerton takes the surprising ground that "the use of illustrating 'Gulliver's Travels' is very questionable," and so with 'Robinson Crusoe.' He is quite right in wishing to exclude from histories composed pictures of events which the artist could not witness, and in his enumeration of the kinds that are admissible.

A paper on Francesco del Cossa, with illustrations of his works, and a paper on Alexander Dumas, senior, as a dramatist, compose the main text of *L'Art* for February 15 (Macmillan). The full-page etching is a portrait of Baron James de Rothschild.

The *Journal of the Military Service Institution* for the first quarter of 1888, No. 33, is perhaps the most valuable issue up to this time. It contains the prize essay upon "Our Northern Frontier," by Lieut. Woodruff, Fifth Infantry; "How to Feed the Soldier," a most interesting paper by Major Spurgin, the popular Commis-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sary of Cadets at the Military Academy, etc.; "Systems of Defence of the Principal Powers of Europe," by Capt. Turtle, U. S. Engineers. But the most timely and valuable paper in the *Journal* is part i. of Lieut. R. W. Young's "Legal and Tactical Considerations Affecting the Employment of the Military in the Suppression of Mobs," etc. The data for this work were compiled while General Hancock was President of the Institution, and at his instance, and the manuscript has been examined at the invitation of the Institution by General F. J. Porter, Commissioner of Police, General Josiah Porter, Adjutant-General of New York, and General E. L. Molineux, an authority upon the subject, and has met their approval. It cannot fail to be of value to officers of the regular service and of the National Guard. The *Journal* closes with an exhaustive discussion of a lecture recently delivered by Captain Birnie, Ordnance Corps, upon "Gun-making in the United States." Fifteen experts (civil and military) in the invention, construction, or use of heavy ordnance, including some of the most famous iron founders in the country, took part in this discussion.

Prof. Milne of Tokio continues research, with his accustomed activity, in the phenomena and causes of earthquakes, earth tremors, and the like. In vol. xi. of the Transactions of the Seismological Society of Japan — the latest which has reached us—he follows up a line of investigation which he began five years ago, and in which he seeks to make out the theory of the influence of the wind and barometric changes upon the earth's crust. After treating of late researches on earth tremors by Italian seismologists, Prof. Milne discusses the observations made up to the present time in Japan, and concludes that nearly all these tremors are traceable to the effects of the wind upon the earth's surface, and that these slight motions of the crust are frequently propagated to regions far removed from the immediate area of wind disturbance. More specifically, the earth tremors coincide with a low barometer more often than with a high one; a high barometric gradient is more favorable to their detection than a small one; the stronger the wind the more likely are the earth tremors to be observed; earthquakes and earth-tremors appear to have no connection, other than that both occur during the same seasons with greater frequency; and, lastly, the tremors, quite different from earthquake effects, are fully as severely felt on the summits of mountains as on the plains below. From the evidence exhibited in Prof. Milne's paper, the conclusion appears to be well established.

Professor Winslow Upton, Secretary of the New England Meteorological Society, Providence, R. I., has distributed a circular to some five hundred towns in western New England, asking for records of the average depth of snowfall in the recent severe storm, with which to supplement the 150 reports that will be received from the regular observers of the Society, and thus gain material for a discussion such as the storm warrants. The newspapers have been so occupied with the effects of the snow-drifts, that the storm as a whole has gone almost undescribed; there has been no adequate account of it yet published. The signal-service stations are too scattered to furnish the data needed for a detailed statement of its approach and passage, although its extraordinary character entitles it to careful study. At such times, especially, the value of the local State weather services is particularly apparent, and it is to be regretted that New York has not followed the example of all the adjacent States in organizing one. There was a time, some forty years ago, when New York led the country in the fulness and accuracy of her climatic records, but now she stands at the other end of the list, behind Louisiana and Arkansas in this respect. We can hardly expect the desired increase in the accuracy of the official weather predictions until fuller material for the study of storms that are predicted incorrectly is gathered and discussed in a thorough manner.

The first paper in the March Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is on Siam, by J. McCarthy, Superintendent of Surveys in that country. Referring to the proposed Indo-Chinese Railway, he expresses strong doubts as to the commercial success of the enterprise. In one of his journeys in the northeastern part of the kingdom, he found some gigantic stone jars in a great plain, the former use of which is unknown to the natives, but which remind us of the burial jars of ancient Peru. Admiral Mayne gives a summary of explorations in British North Borneo, and Gen. Strachey contributes his first lecture on geography before the University of Cambridge, in which he treats of the relations of geography and astronomy, and sketches the history of the construction of maps.

At the February meeting of the Berlin Geographical Society, Dr. Wiedermann, who had just returned from central Asia, gave an account of the Trans-Caspian Railway. Besides its strategical importance, in his opinion it possesses an eminent economic value. Already the country through which it passes is becoming rapidly settled and cultivated. Of the various productions, "cotton is destined to play the most important part, since the cultivation of American cotton has been commenced with the greatest success in the neighborhood of Tashkend and Samarkand; in the former place in 1887 three full crops were produced from one field. The total area of cotton plantations in Turkistan is estimated at 600 desiatines, or about 1,500 acres, and will soon render Russia independent of foreign countries as regards cotton."

Since Mr. Im Thum succeeded in gaining the summit of Mt. Roraima in Guiana, two other botanists have made the ascent. One of them, Mr. F. Dressel, saw some butterflies, nearly black, on the top, as well as a small black toad and a millipede. It had been supposed that there was no animal life upon the mountain.

Apropos of Mr. Fitzedward Hall's recent remarks in these columns on "most" in the sense of "almost," "C." writes us as follows: "This use of the word is a tradition from very far back, and whether, as a habit, confined to the ignorant of our day or not, did not originate among the ignorant. In King Alfred's Orosius we read that Cyrus had laid waste 'most all' the East (mæst ealne); and in Archbishop Wulfstan's homily mæst ælc, most everybody, occurs twice."

—The April *Harper's* contains a paper upon "Acting and Authors," by C. Coquelin, supplementary to the one which he contributed some time ago, and somewhat more special in its manner of treatment. It is noticeable for the strong ground he takes, that the actor is generally subordinate to the author, and should limit himself with much strictness to interpreting the characters and the words according to the author's conceptions. This involves as a consequence the position that some actors are especially fitted by temperament to certain authors, and, even when one is capable of taking many parts, the necessity of his keeping the types distinct so as not to "Shaksperianize" Molière, and vice versa. His general theory of art is admirably and tersely stated in his remark that "everything ought to start from *truth*, everything ought to tend towards the *ideal*"; and it exhibits the relation between the two rival schools, and the truth in each of them, very plainly. The cuts are all interesting, but those which represent Sardou at the rehearsal are particularly effective. Mr. Warner contributes a second paper on the West, which is, if anything, even better than that which we noticed last month for its breadth of view, its temperateness, and the reality of the information it affords. He deals especially with Wisconsin, and calls particular attention to the utility and practical influence of the farmers' institutes there, and to the establishment of county hospitals for the chronic insane, with their methods of freedom and labor, which he regards as a real and beneficial change in the system of State supervision. The West is also represented by an account of the city of Columbus, with a very good description of its business. The foreign-travel paper is an artist's sketch of Algiers, with many illustrations, and it is tolerably successful, though naturally much confined to the artistic point of view. Prof. Griffis's brief description of Japanese ivory carving is also embellished with interesting cuts, and the paper upon the Leavenworth military school is noticeable. There is, as usual, a preponderance of Southern fiction, Lafcadio Hearn contributing a long tale, and Joel Chandler Harris a short one.

—In the April *Atlantic* Mr. Lowell and Mr. Aldrich have poems, and the three serials make much progress. The most vivacious article is by Mrs. Elizabeth Robins Pennell. It is made up of two parts somewhat confusedly intermingled. One is a theory of art, the other consists of some observations of her own upon the London exhibitions given for the benefit of the working-people, with the hope of helping to impart to them some knowledge of cultivated pleasures and arousing in them the instinct for beauty. The theory of art is sufficiently described by saying that it is the denial of Ruskin *in toto*, and with some sharpness, and more particularly that it is an unfavorable criticism of Burne Jones and others of the idealist school. This last is enforced by the opinion on the pictures of the Romanticists spoken by the workingmen for whose benefit they were exhibited. Naturally Mrs. Pennell found that pictures that told some story were the most popular, and that the intellectual or mythical allegorizing of Burne Jones was not understood. The article is not convincing, but it is written with an interest that enlivens it, and it offers a direct view of the process of a noteworthy experiment. Mr. Cook concludes his survey of the Marriage-Contract, to which we have before called special attention, by a summary of the law in the United States. He has no good opinion of that law, and thinks that it places us in the rear of European nations, and even in some respects of savage tribes. The theory that marriage is a personal right has been carried to the extreme here, and in by far the greater part of the country the courts acknowledge the consent of the parties, without any other element whatever, to constitute the bond. He points out the defects of such a theory, with regard to the real interests of society in the institution, and he argues strongly that it constitutes a danger in view of the character of the negro, foreign, and city population over which the law, as so decided, largely rules. He seems to think that ignorance that valid marriage can be constituted in so simple a way may account for the little injury thus far suffered; but with the disappearance of the ignorance we may look for an increase of incon-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

venience. The argument and the facts are well worthy of attention.

—*Scribner's* artistic article this month contains many fine cuts of Greek vases, which must prove very welcome to the many who are interested in art of this kind, but to whom such reproductions are not easily accessible. The text is by Mr. Longfellow, and is closely confined to the subject, which it unfolds with special reference to questions of style and taste. Mr. Ropes concludes the sketch of Waterloo, and gives a very definite solution of Napoleon's losing a battle which it would seem from this account belonged to him, had he taken proper care, so far as position was concerned. Gibraltar is the subject of an unusually interesting paper of travel by the Rev. Henry M. Field, and the excellent illustrations give the appearance of the great rock from many points of view with admirable truth. The most notable article in popular interest is Gen. Greely's analysis of the atmospheric conditions of the country with reference to the choice of summer resorts. He recommends, as "moderately dry and not too warm a climate," the coast and islands of Maine and the southern coast of New England between Nantucket and Stonington. Long Island and the New Jersey beaches he regards as less desirable than the Lake region. For a very dry climate, not too hot in summer, he selects the White, Green, and Adirondack Mountains, and the country between the Blue Ridge and the Kanawha Ridge, Cumberland and Clinch Mountains. For comfortable bathing, one should go south of the mouth of Long Island Sound. To get rid of the hottest weather, vacations should be taken not later than the 10th of July. Travel or residence in the Rocky Mountains and westward is discouraged in July and August. No portion of the Pacific States is recommended for summer visitors "except a narrow strip along the coast or on the salt-water bays," which the sea breezes visit. Gen. Greely gives two maps by which one can see the lines of average temperature and of humidity, both of which are interesting for their irregular curves, especially in the Blue Ridge region.

—Mr. George Saintsbury, who has recently employed himself with saying the best word for several of the minor writers of the earlier part of the century, devotes a paper in the March *Macmillan's* to Thomas Moore, in whose songs he still finds living poetry. He does not make a convincing argument; and, in fact, only appeals to the direct impression made by Moore's songs. This is, for the critic, to stand aside and leave the poems to make their own way, and doubtless Moore will affect the sensibilities of a certain class so long as he can get himself read. In the course of the review, nowever, Mr. Saintsbury makes some very true remarks about setting poems to music. Shelley, for example, though our greatest lyrist since the Elizabethans, had no ear for music, and the melody of his poetry is not that of song to be sung. The poems of Shelley have not been successfully set to music, according to Mr. Saintsbury, and even if they had been more skilfully treated, the melody of the notes would still be essentially different from that of the syllables. Burns and Scott, who also had no ear for music, are instances on the other side, because their songs are easily put into musical form. In Moore's case, however, the words and the music go together with such ease that "it never seems to have mattered to him whether he wrote the words for the air or altered the air to suit the words." The question raised is an obscure one. Shelley certainly was very sensitive to music, whether he had an ear for it, technically speaking, or not; the assertion that he was deficient is Peacock's, whose testimony is not the best on anything relating to Shelley. For Burns and Scott, we take Mr. Saintsbury's word, though it would be desirable to know just how much he means by an "ear for music." Independent of this, there does appear to be a music of poetry in itself, distinct from the music of song; and one may be a master of the former without having any but a rudimentary sense of the latter. It is not quite clear that Moore, by uniting the two, rises to any extraordinary height merely by so doing. It is an interesting fact, however, that his name should still be so much alive as to draw forth a biography from a Frenchman, M. Gustave Vallat, which is the occasion of this article.

—Dr. Garnett, in a lecture before the Shelley Society upon "Shelley and Lord Beaconsfield," has brought to public notice the curious but not surprising fact that the latter, in his novel, 'Venetia,' drew Shelley's character out of his own mouth by the easiest of methods. Speaking of the conversation between Herbert (Byron) and Cadurcis (Shelley), Dr. Garnett says: "The most striking passages—with a freedom which would have justly subjected Disraeli to the imputation of plagiarism if he had not put them into the mouth of Shelley himself—are taken out of one of the least known of his works." Much of it is derived from the 'Discourse on the Manners of the Ancients,' apparently from the fragment given by Medwin in 1833, as the whole text did not appear until three years after 'Venetia.' Besides Medwin, Disraeli may have drawn from his servant, Tita, who was formerly Byron's, and was at Lerici with Shelley, and also from Hogg through Bulwer Lytton, and possibly directly from Trelawny. Dr. Garnett points out that in the novel the situation of Cadurcis is from Byron's life, and only the character is Shelleyan. This character, as Disraeli presents it, "is drawn in conformity with the most orthodox Shelleyan tradition precisely as Mrs. Shelley and Trelawny and Hogg and Medwin have agreed to represent the poet." This shows that Disraeli must have taken pains to learn about him. But that Disraeli was strongly attracted by Shelley two years before he began to write 'Venetia,' is proved by his forgotten 'Revolutionary Epic,' which, as Dr. Garnett observes, "bears its obligations to Shelley blazoned upon its front." It is a most palpable copy in style and structure and the very quality of its words. This was in 1834. The date is worthy of notice. Dr. Garnett sees in the 'Epic' and in 'Venetia' proofs of the genuine interest inspired in Disraeli by Shelley; and respecting the verdict rendered in the novel, he says: "So clear a deliverance from a person of Lord Beaconsfield's eminence conspicuously marks a stage in the history of public opinion respecting Shelley. If far from coming up to the claims justly advanced on Shelley's behalf by the members of his own circle, or the author of 'Pauline' [1832], or the young enthusiasts who had taken him up at Cambridge [1829], it is as great an advance on the condescension of Moore as that was on the verdict of the *Quarterly Review*." The episode is an interesting one, which thus connects two such exceptional Englishmen, the most exceptional, indeed, in our century. Dr. Garnett thinks that Theodora in 'Lothair' would have been Shelley's favorite heroine; but this is speculating about a past taste.

—Prof. C. A. Buchheim, already well known to many of our pedagogic readers, has just published (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) a volume of selections from Becker's 'Weltgeschichte' illustrating the life of Frederick the Great. Nothing could be more admirably planned, so it seems to us, than this little volume. An English introduction of twenty pages sketches the rise of the Hohenzollern dynasty. The extracts from Becker, one hundred and eleven pages, illustrate the successive periods of Frederick's life, prominence being given of course to the Seven Years' War. The notes, in fifty-six pages, explain difficulties in grammar and structure and (chiefly) in the historical and geographical statements. There is a map of the territory in contention between Austria and Prussia, and an alphabetical index of persons and place-names. Evidently the editor has had in mind students not far advanced and wishing to familiarize themselves thoroughly with German narrative prose. To such, Becker's style, clear, straightforward, free from rhetorical contortion, is perfectly adapted. The editor has done all in his power to make an intensely interesting epoch of modern history attractive and intelligible to the beginner in history and language. And for this he merits the thanks of all his English-speaking colleagues.

—Seldom have excavations on Greek soil rendered more speedy and brilliant results than have those which are now conducted at Icaria by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, as described at length in the last number of the *Nation*. The work has been like the opening of a great chest of hidden and forgotten treasures. Within six weeks from the beginning of the work, although only half-a-dozen men were employed at first, a museum of antiquities has been formed, besides the determination of an important site. Within the last week, news has come of the discovery of the Pythion, or temple of Apollo at Icaria, with a pretty relief representing Apollo with long curls seated on the *omphalos*, holding up a handful of twigs in one hand, and a patera in the other. Behind him stands a woman, while in front is an altar with an adorant. Another relief represents Apollo playing on the lyre. Not far away, a large platform of marble has been found, a marble seat, some bases; and two walls, one of which makes a curve as if it might enclose the dancing-ground of a theatre. Several other foundations have been uncovered by the trial trenches which have been dug. The field for operations has widened indefinitely, and the thorough examination of the site is a much greater undertaking than was at first supposed. Another ruin in the same valley invites excavation and exploration. Icaria has been treated as at least half mythical; but the deme steps forward now with greater distinctness than any other rural district of Attica.

—'Mounds [*kurgani*] and Occasional Archæological Finds near the Hamlet of Smyela' is the title of a diary kept, during the space of five years, by Count Alexei Bobrinsky, and now published. Between 1879 and 1885 Count Bobrinsky investigated fifty-three mounds in the vicinity of Smyela, in the southern part of the Government of Kieff. These excavations were chiefly conducted by sinking shafts which were sometimes thirty-two feet in diameter, through the centre of the mound, from its summit to its very bottom. Everything that was met with was carefully noted, as well as its position in the mound. In most cases it proved that the lofty mounds had served as the burial place for two different tribes, separated from each other by a great period of time and a noticeable difference in culture. The first inhabitants of the place dug a grave for their dead, covered it with a wooden framework, and heaped above it a lofty, pointed hillock.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Three or four graves, generally of the same epoch, were apt to be found under one mound. In them lay people with remarkably long skulls. As a rule, there were no objects pertaining to daily life lying around them; sometimes flint arrows and knives, or lumps of pigment for tattooing, were encountered. Occasionally the bones of the mole and other small rodents were found. The succeeding race made use of the mounds, burying their dead on top of the first. The skulls of these skeletons are of a form entirely different from those of their predecessors, and in their graves objects of bronze and bits of clay vessels are met with; all of which point to a different nationality for the races. Quite another race was revealed by the examination of one of a throng of low mounds, huddled together to the number of several hundred. This people had bronze and iron implements, held intercourse with the Greeks of the seacoast colonies, and did not place the bones of moles and so forth in their graves, like the two previous tribes. Bits of colored stuffs still lay on some of the skeletons, fragments of galloons, and even brass knee-caps, such as were used by the Greeks. Count Bobrinsky makes the suggestion that these graves may have belonged to a certain tribe, of Greek extraction, whom Herodotus mentions as having lived amid the Scythians, in the interior of Russia. However, the author considers his data insufficient for the construction of any theory, and confines himself to a very careful and minute description of everything found, and its situation, with the aid of two maps and twenty-four plates.

RUSKIN'S PRÆTERITA.

Præterita: Outlines of Scenes and Thoughts, perhaps Worthy of Memory, in my Past Life. By John Ruskin, LL.D. 2 vols. 1886-1887. John Wiley & Sons.

At one point in this story Mr. Ruskin, speaking of himself when just past his majority, asks the reader, "Does he think me a lucky or an unlucky youth, I wonder? commendable on the whole and exemplary, or the reverse?" It is not easy to reply. He himself says that the real fact was "that hitherto, and for a year or two on yet, I was simply a little floppy and soppy tadpole—little more than a stomach with a tail to it, flattening and wriggling itself up the crystal ripples and in the pure sands of the springhead of youth." The autobiography, at all events, describes the tadpole stage of existence, professing to record only the formative years of the author's life; and naturally it is a history of his home, with his near relatives for its leading characters, and the things of childhood and youth for incidents. We shall endeavor to give some account of it, and leave the reader to judge whether Ruskin's education was enviable, and he himself a model boy after any conceivable pattern of perfection.

His mother was the daughter of the landlady of the old King's Head at Croydon, and after attending at a day-school where she became the best needlewoman and otherwise first pupil, being also trained to good housewifery, she went to Scotland to keep house for her uncle and aunt, and commended herself to the son of the family, her cousin, four years her junior; when he started for London seven years later, the two were engaged. Nine years of waiting followed on this, and then Mr. Ruskin, having established himself in the wine business and paid his father's debts, married her. He chose his wife, says his son, "with the same kind of serenity and decision with which afterwards he chose his clerks." Elsewhere we are told that he chose his clerks for their "incapacity," not liking to be excelled himself; but this is not to be used as a comment on his selection of a wife. The ceremony was speedily and almost secretly performed, and the two entered upon a life which continued to be very quiet.

Ruskin was the only child of this late union, and when his memory begins, his mother must have passed her fortieth year. He was destined from the cradle, in the hope of his parents, to be a bishop, and perhaps this may have had something to do with the severity of his religious education. He was taught, first and last, the Bible; his mother read it with him daily until he was fourteen, with much attention to his utterance and also to the meaning; nothing was omitted; in this way "she began with the first verse of Genesis, and went straight through, to the last verse of the Apocalypse; hard names, Numbers, Levitical law, and all; and began again at Genesis the next day." He had also much to commit to memory, and he used to write out abstracts of sermons that he heard. No playthings to speak of were allowed him; a set of blocks and an architectural bridge seem to have been all. He was whipped on all proper occasions, and so learned to be quiet and obedient and not to tumble down stairs. He was not allowed to do anything in which he might meet with an accident, and had none of the sports of boys; in fact, he never had any real association with boys. He learned his lessons and played as he could, and he had a place in the drawing-room at tea, a "cup of milk and slice of bread-and-butter in a little recess, with a table in front of it, wholly sacred to me; and in which I remained in the evenings as an idol in a niche, while my mother knitted, and my father read to her—and to me, so far as I chose to listen." His appetite was not cloyed with sweets nor his digestion ruined with desserts; he actually remembers his first taste of custard as an event. The servants were allowed to do nothing for him except what it was their duty to do. In short, he was most beautifully taken care of according to his mother's idea of what was proper.

He himself notices some few of the consequences. In the first place, he says, he had nothing to love, and so grew up without affection, his father and mother being like powers of nature to him; and he had also nothing to endure, no independent exercise of his perceptions of right and wrong or other training *in any school of self-control, no education in* social manners. These defects he afterwards perceived, but to what extent is uncertain. At the end of the volumes we find these significant sentences: "The thoughtful reader must have noted with some displeasure that I have scarcely, whether at college or at home, used the word 'friendship' with respect to any of my companions. The fact is, I am a little puzzled by the specialty and singularity of poetical and classical friendship. I get, distinctively, attached to places, to pictures, to dogs, cats, and girls; but I have had, heaven be thanked, many and true friends, young and old, who have been of boundless help and good to me, nor I quite helpless to them; yet for none of whom have I ever obeyed George Herbert's mandate, 'Thy friend put in thy bosom!'" His interests, generally speaking, were in impersonal things.

The household, however, is not completely described in what has been said. He was himself to be a bishop, but his father and mother were only *nouveaux riches*, and they had an English sense of that fact. They were economical, kept only female servants, and no horse, had but one acre of leasehold land for the garden, and gave no great entertainments. There were occasionally dinners to customers, with excellent sherry; there were few callers, his mother not caring to leave a card on foot at the doors of ladies who dashed up to hers in their barouches. On the other hand, the child perceived that there was a discernible distance observed towards the Croydon relatives, whom he was not often allowed to visit; and when the rare occasion came, he was never permitted to go off to play with his cousins. His father had but two ambitions, one to head the list of sherry importations, and the other that his son should be a genius, preferably in the Church, and, if not there, then among the poets. He had a romantic streak in him, and after he had fretted a little with his wife, if the orders were less than had been expected that day, he read Scott, Shakspere, 'Don Quixote,' Byron, the 'Noctes Ambrosianæ,' and the like, and he read these authors without "the least missing of the naughty words," oblivious of the "Idol in the Niche." In time it came about that the boy, now in early teens, was asked what he would like to hear, and one day he noticed glances exchanged across the table when he "instantly answered 'Juan and Haidée.'" The selection was not adopted, and apparently the youth did not know what he was asking for. Certainly there was no prudery in the literature he was used to peruse or hear, beginning with the Bible; in connection with this he defends his mother from a suggested comparison with Esther's religious aunt in 'Bleak House.' The passage is curious:

"For, on the contrary, there was a hearty, frank, and sometimes even irrepressible laugh in my mother! never sardonic, yet with a very definitely Smollettesque turn in it! so that between themselves she and my father enjoyed their 'Humphrey Clinker' extremely, long before *I* was able to understand either the jest or gist of it. Much more, she could exult in a harmless bit of Smollettesque reality. Years and years after this time, in one of our crossings of the Simplon, just at the top, where we had stopped to look about us, Nurse Anne sat down to rest herself on the railings at the roadside, just in front of the monastery, . . . lost her balance and went backwards over the railings down the bank. My father could not help suggesting that she had done it expressly for the entertainment of the Holy Fathers; and neither he nor my mother could ever speak of the 'performance' (as they called it) afterwards without laughing for a quarter of an hour."

It is worth notice, too, that having seen Taglioni once, his mother went whenever she was asked; and that his father would join him in a Sunday walk in Wales, though both of them had "a subdued consciousness of being profane and rebellious characters, compared with my mother." His father would talk sherry on Sunday, too. Altogether, there are anecdotes enough to show that religiousness was a matter of the child's education, but was mixed with mollifying elements in the parents.

Ruskin himself was really forced upon his mind and his books for what individual life he had. He wrote verses and stories and liked to possess a few geological specimens; he sketched a good deal; and these were the beginnings of his literary and artistic life. He was never really a scholar, not even as a boy. But what he learned best of all was to have a very high opinion of himself and his doings. He measured himself with no one, and his parents had backed him against the field for a bishopric or the laureate. When he was taken to riding-school, and he kept falling off, and the thing was given up, they took his not learning to ride as being a proof of a singular genius. They were never very cordial to a certain Mr. Pringle, who was the first person to intimate, "with some decision, that there were as yet no trustworthy

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

indications" of their son's eclipsing Milton and Byron. The youth, since he had talents, was bound to grow up, to borrow his own words, "nothing more than a conceited and unentertainingly troublesome little monkey." But he grew up, as we all do, at last, and the time came for him to go to Oxford, where he was duly entered as a gentleman commoner, one reason being that he might fail to pass examination as a commoner, and another that he would be a wearer of velvet and silk—"Yes, good reader, the velvet and silk made a difference not to my mother only, but to me."

Such a "home-boy" at Oxford was a *rara avis*, more particularly in such a set. He was safe enough, as he shows by the catalogue of his disqualifications. He had never touched a card, and he looked on dice "as people now do on dynamite"; he couldn't ride, he didn't bet, he had no temptation to be extravagant, because there were no Turners, and he was safe from "the strange woman," partly because he was in love, and "besides never allowed to be out after half-past nine." But he fared very well, behaved very nicely, worked at his books, and sustained his few rebuffs and student lessons well enough. His mother came down to spend the three years near him, and had lodgings in High Street where he went every evening: she wished to be by if he should be ill; and his father lived alone at home, except that he joined them on Sundays, and the three went "in the old domestic way to St. Peter's for the Sunday morning service; otherwise they never appeared in public, lest my companions should laugh at me, or any one else ask malicious questions concerning vintner papa and his old-fashioned wife." One wonders a little what Ruskin learned there, as we find him the next year saying at Rome that he "was not quite sure whether Trajan lived before Christ or after," and that he "would have thanked, with a sense of relieved satisfaction, anybody who might have told me that Marcus Antoninus was a Roman philosopher contemporary with Socrates."

The peculiarity of this family which has not been touched upon was a taste for pictures. Rogers's 'Italy' had early made the boy acquainted with Turner; and pictures had been bought—one Copley Fielding, which is recorded as the first real purchase—and others in turn. It was in Ruskin's taste the period of what he calls Proutism. A second important matter, yet unnoticed, is that the three took journeys together, at first in England to make the rounds of the country customers for sherry, and then very often on the Continent. Ruskin identifies the sources of his real education as Rouen, Geneva, and Pisa; but he does not disclose the method or history of their teaching in these volumes, though he has much to say of the last two in a strain of eulogy and description to which we are well accustomed. The first sight of the Alps from Schaffhausen, when he was fourteen years old, he counts as his awakening hour, and he describes it finely, of course; but he did not then know what it meant to him. When he visited Italy, just after leaving Oxford, he was ill, but the sort of appreciation of which he was capable is easily seen, and the forming style of 'Modern Painters' is easily read, in the extracts from his diary. The one noticeable thing is a good result of his wilful conceit in his refusal to take other people's eyes and judgments for his own, and in his rejection of what, whether rightly or wrongly, he did not like. This was so marked that he says his recent purchase of a Turner in a rather unbusinesslike way, which horrified his father, "coupled with my now irrepressible impertinences to Raphael and Domenichino, began to give me in my parents' eyes something of the distant aspect of the Prodigal Son."

The kind old people had a good deal to bear with him, first and last; but he was, by means of these journeys and the use of his faculties, gradually getting out of the tadpole state, and in a year or two more had won his way with the first volume of 'Modern Painters,' and was coming into that real education of which he does not tell the story at all, though he paints a few of its Alpine and Italian scenes. The son's progress was pleasing to his father, who was so anxious that he should be famous. Ruskin would read the fine passages of his manuscript after breakfast, and he says his father generally cried a little over them, but he grew aware of a difference arising between them, and when his father "found himself required to admire flat walls, striped like the striped calico of an American flag, and oval-eyed saints like the figures on a Chinese tea cup, he grew restive. Further, all the fine writing and polite éclat of 'Modern Painters' had never reconciled him to my total resignation of the art of poetry." A page or two later there is a speaking bit of penitence, on occasion of the old man's interrupting an æsthetic revery, as they were driving past the La Spina chapel at Pisa, with a question as to what he should give the coachman; whereupon, as the son says, "I took upon me with impatience to reprove and lament over my father's hardness of heart in thinking at that moment of sublunary affairs." But, notwithstanding such selfishness and conceit on the son's part, of which this is an example, his feeling towards his parents was always filial, and the relations between them grateful and indulgent.

The chapter, or rather, if one may say so, the continued episode, of Ruskin's love affairs is given very much emphasis. He fell in love with Adèle, the daughter of his father's partner, M. Domecq, a Catholic and somewhat foolish young lady, but she laughed at him. He says it was a serious matter to him, which he remembers with a kind of shame, but one does not see that there was any real passion in it or personal love, though he was moody over it for some years of adolescence. He takes a curious pleasure in ridiculing himself in this as in other parts of his early life. "In my social behavior and mind I was a curious combination of Mr. Traddles, Mr. Toots, and Mr. Winkle. I had the real fidelity and single-mindedness of Mr. Traddles, with the conversational abilities of Mr. Toots, and the heroic ambition of Mr. Winkle—all these illuminated by imagination like Mr. Copperfield's at his first Norwood dinner." He endeavored to recommend himself by giving her his views on Transubstantiation, to dazzle her by printing his first romance, "The Bandit Leoni," in 'Friendship's Offering,' and to melt her by a long French letter describing the desolation after her absence; but Adèle laughed—that was all. It was first love in a very young form. There were others later—a face in Rome, an eligible *parti* in England, and a charming Charlotte whom he wooed by writing a review; but all this is the mere drift of the time, related to his life only by chance. Of more interest and vastly more pleasure are the half-dozen portraits of the narrative, the Scottish relatives and servants and one or two Englishmen; best of all, Acland and Osborne, admirable examples of early English manhood; but these are not integral in the life and career of Ruskin, any more than the discussions of Byron or the descriptions of the Riviera which give substance to the volumes, and must be left one side.

Altogether these passages from Ruskin's past life illustrate his defects rather than his virtues. He looks on the figure he cut in them as usually comical and ridiculous, as may be seen from the quotations we have made; and, with all allowance for his exaggeration in expression, and with due regard for the fact that a man has a better right to laugh at himself than others to laugh at him, we think Ruskin is quite correct in the view he takes. This was a foolish way to bring up a child, and foolishness was justified of her works. His isolation from other boys and their rough-and-ready doings explains, in some measure, the deficient manliness of his character, his lack of practical sagacity, and his incapacity for rational conduct in affairs. With the best motives and lofty aims, he has foiled himself because he cannot deal with men as his equals, and has succeeded only when it was possible for him to move among them as a patron. The conceit that was bred in him has never been eradicated; he calls it by other names as he grows older, but the thing remains unchanged, and there are half-a-dozen examples of it here which would be incredible in any other writer. Where his own talent is concerned he has little sense of proportion, and often none at all; and, of course, his opinions are simply of Delphic authority. The religious influences, too, largely defeated themselves; it is not agreeable to read his remarks about his early belief and his routine devotions, because their tone is really cynical. His religion became a cult of historical æstheticism in art, and a fervid obedience to that half of the moral law which is concerned with the duties of man to his neighbor. It is a pity that his autobiography should deal only with these childish things, and not illustrate at all that ethical instinct which makes him memorable. His narrative is also marred to us very much because he is conscious of the vulgarity of his origin in a way hardly consistent with true dignity. He often speaks rather patronizingly of his parents, and this is a fault both of taste and of justice. Such reflections as these are bound to arise in the mind, and it is impossible to offset their weight; but the volumes are written like friendly confidences, and, in the case of a friend, one would not judge, but rather obey the maxim written more than once in these pages: *Guarda e passa.*

ROOSEVELT'S BENTON.

Benton. By Theodore Roosevelt. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE announcement that the next biography in the "Statesmen" series would be by Theodore Roosevelt reminded us that we had failed to notice his Life of Benton, which was published more than a year ago. For this omission an apology is due to the author; but we beg him to believe that his book, if not reviewed in type, has been viewed and reviewed more than once in the study. Thomas Hart Benton is worth studying both as a type and individual. Mr. Roosevelt has most correctly shown that he is a representative of the West in its early generation as distinguished at once from the East and the South; that it is a pure blunder to suppose, because he was a Missourian, descended from Virginians, that therefore he and his like are to be ranked as essentially belonging to the South as opposed to the North; or as upholders of slavery as opposed to equality. The men who subdued and held the Mississippi Valley in the first quarter of this century were rapidly consolidating a community of their own, which looked to such men as Benton as its leaders, and which surveyed both the south-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

western and the northeastern maritime States as equally open to its alliance or antagonism. The mutual compliments of Hayne and Benton in the famous debate of 1830 can be interpreted on no other principle. Mr. Roosevelt is particularly accurate in dealing with the Western, or, as we may properly call it, in contrast with our later West, the Southwestern character, as affected by the slavery question. He shows that, though Benton and those whom he represented were slaveholders, the institution occupied an entirely different place in their lives from what it did in those of the Coast cotton-lords. Mr. Roosevelt's eighth chapter is particularly instructive on this topic.

In his lively and energetic development of the Western character, the author seems to us at times carried away so as to overlook its defects. There is something dangerously like Carlyle's eulogy on old Frederick William in the encomiums he bestows on the hard, dogged, fighting farmers that considered the sum and substance of national duty to be swarming out the Indians and Mexicans, and "revindicating," as a Frenchman might say, the Mississippi Valley—forcibly if they could, peaceably if they must—for the sons of the settlers on the Upper Cumberland and the French Broad. There is a stain of blood and iron, muscular Christianity *minus* the Christian part, in the author's philosophy of civilization, as it appears from parts of some of his chapters, which look as if he was "spoiling for a fight." If Mr. Roosevelt shall be an active American statesman thirty years hence, we trust he will recast more than one sentence in his chapter on the "Boundary Troubles with England," when a longer life shall have shown him the boundless evils entailed by war.

In his account of the strife of parties during the Administrations of Jackson, Van Buren, and Tyler, the author has aimed to combine a reasonable regard for the demands, motives, and passions of the times, with the coolness of a philosophic historian who surveys the whole after the event, when the actors each saw only a part. He has undoubtedly succeeded well in this effort; he shows that he really appreciates the intense interest attaching to the Congressional and popular contests of this period, so little appreciated by common students of American history, who seem to know little or nothing of any great debates between that on Foote's resolution and that on the compromise of 1850. His account contains many very acute and sensible verdicts on the great men of that time, from among which we would especially refer to a judgment upon Mr. Calhoun on pages 165–168. It is too long to injure by quotation; but we advise all who have adopted the prevalent views of statesmen of 1830–1850 to ponder, in the light of all we now know, this entire passage, and especially its closing sentences: "Doubtless in private life, or as regards any financial matters, Calhoun's conduct was always blameless; but it may well be that he has received far more credit for purity of motive in his public conduct than his action fairly entitled him to."

We are not certain that Mr. Roosevelt does not like to find such verdicts a little too well. After reading over very carefully his account of American politics during Benton's "thirty years in the United States Senate," to transfer the title of a book to a life, it seems to us that with a little practice he might rival Macaulay's description of Hallam, and be the "hanging judge, the Page or Buller," of American history. His black cap is always on. There is some radical defect of heart or head or both in every one of the characters of that remarkable period as he handles them. He can hardly make out that Mr. Benton was the wisest of all of them, or the most unprejudiced, or the least infected with party violence—and indeed it is fair to say that his regard for his hero never degenerates into worship or Boswellism; but he continues to leave on one's mind the general impression that Benton had more single-hearted patriotism than any of his great competitors. We must express our conviction that this deduction is essentially unjust to several of them.

The fact is, that Benton was one of those men who mistook getting very angry for being deeply convinced. He had the peculiar narrowness of mind which belongs to the citizen of a big community as opposed to a great nation. At the time of the battle of Salamis, Athens was very small and the Egyptians very numerous. At the time of Peter the Great, Holland was very small and the Russians very numerous. But as far as real breadth and depth and height of humanity was concerned, Athens and Holland were centuries ahead of Egypt and Russia. So in Benton's time; the idea of the manifest destiny and boundless expansion of the pioneers of the West was a limited and barren idea in comparison, not merely with the wishes, but with the limitations that belong to the statesman of the East. It may be that New England failed to comprehend the future greatness of Oregon; but Mr. Choate's speech on the boundary dispute has, to our mind, far more of the real greatness of nationality than all the 54° 40′ hurrahs, which appear to strike a responsive chord in Mr. Roosevelt's heart. Missouri was a very great State, Delaware a very little one; but we cannot help thinking the speeches of Senator Clayton, with all his undoubted faults, would be a better institute of politics than those of Senator Benton, with all his virtues. It can hardly be that all the assertions of nationality made by all the wings of the Democratic party from 1807 to 1847 did as much to bar the right of search, once for all, as Mr. Webster's unanswered and unanswerable despatch to Lord Aberdeen. Undoubtedly the opposition to General Jackson let party get the better of patriotism sometimes, as all parties will. But that on the whole they maintained a higher tone of national and international morality than his friends did, is our conviction more than it seems to be Mr. Roosevelt's.

The conclusion of Mr. Benton's life, with the injustice of his own State to him, is well told. We regret that Mr. Roosevelt could give no more space to the private life of so individual a personage. Indeed, he seems towards the end of his volume to be under pressure to finish a book which was perhaps too diffuse in its early parts. The impression he leaves on his readers of his subject is on the whole favorable. An honesty of purpose which was persistent and sincere, though often found allied through party with very different qualities in other men; an energy not always according to reason and humanity, but untiring and undaunted; a culture often uncouth, diffuse, and untimely, yet apparently the growth of a real love of learning and improvement; a patriotism narrow, prejudiced, local, yet steadily growing wider and loftier; a pugnacity, more appropriate to an earlier period of the world's history, which said, "I do well to be angry," mixed with a real kindliness of feeling where the old pioneer temper of suspicion was overcome—these combinations make a character that one cannot help noticing, cannot help censuring, yet which has on the whole strong titles to our respect, though perhaps not quite as high as that which our author accords.

Mr. Roosevelt has not failed to notice Benton's queer fondness for a certain kind of inflated eloquence and undigested learning. He is quite right in connecting this taste with Jefferson's name; but the whole race of Virginia statesmen was more or less addicted to it. A delicious instance of how Benton managed to use his hobby of free salt as seasoning for his *macédoine* of classics, will be found on page 93.

We cannot always commend the style of this biography as we could wish. There is a decidedly journalistic flavor about it. "Voiced," "stay for good," "dwarfed all other issues," remind us much of our esteemed contemporaries. There is also a marked flavor of the "boundless paroarer" when describing the inhabitants of that region. But such defects are more than compensated by the number of very shrewd remarks, in very racy and at the same time perfectly classical English, upon a variety of subjects as to which too many people hold conventional views expressed in conventional phrase. We would specially commend the remarks on Randolph's eloquence (p. 62); on the tariff (p. 67); on Harrison's nomination (p. 232); on Southern sympathy with Kossuth (p. 275); and on Jefferson (p. 276).

RECENT NOVELS.

Mrs. Pennicot's Lodger, and Other Stories. By Lady Sophia Palmer. Macmillan & Co.

Roy's Repentance. By Adeline Sergeant. Henry Holt & Co.

Harmonia: A Chronicle. By the author of 'Estelle Russell.' Macmillan & Co.

Looking Backward. By Edward Bellamy. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

The Doctor of Deane. By Mary Towle Palmer. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

LADY SOPHIA PALMER'S book of stories is certainly above the average in originality, imaginative quality, and variety of subjects. Of the six sketches, one is made on Italian ground, one on French, one on Judaean; the remaining three, though all English, range from London to Hinde Head, the dialects from a Sussex drover's to that of a London lodging-house keeper. It would be captious, perhaps, to assert that these features give the book the aspect of an itinerary, since the graceful dedication states that the stories were written mainly to preserve differences of custom and speech. This would seem a superfluous task, for English peasantry of all time are likely to say "they was," and Italians to exclaim "Madonna mia"; and deeper than this the geographic distinctions hardly go. A better reason for the existence of the book is that the stories are fresh, compact, vivid, and tender, and written, excepting an occasional obscure sentence, in the facile style which is second nature to our English sisters, and with a directness not always theirs. If the tales cannot be ranked in the first class, they take a highly honorable place in the second.

That this same English facility of pen may be a fatal possession is every day attested by a fresh flood of novels relating to the ill-used and irresistible governess. Unworthy and poor relations of 'Jane Eyre,' they inherit from their immortal progenitor a few outward features with none of her bone and sinew. We should suppose that the most all-devouring reader of fiction must by this time be sated with the adventures of this persecuted yet all-conquering young person, and that the manufactory for the production of novels for her benefit might be closed—for there must be one, as there is said to be for Verboeckhovens. In 'Roy's Repentance' the wandering Jewess appears under the name of Laurence Erle. She is of distinguished parentage, even of noble on

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the maternal side. Her father is, unhappily, only a rich merchant; but we are mortal. She does not know that she is handsome. This ignorance is the birthright of her race, and they part with it only on overhearing comment from their pupils' elder brothers. Miss Erle has the further advantage of hearing herself called a cameo, across the garden wall, by a chance passer-by, while she holds a position in a school. That he, in order to spare her feelings, with true tact, so soon as he perceives he is heard, professes to have been speaking of the gargoyle, does not deceive the reader, and still leaves the governess in possession of the charm of unconsciousness—a felicitous device. Of course there is no place for cameos in a boarding-school, and this cameo, after the usual interlude in London, at the usual neat lodgings, kept by the usual old family retainer, becomes a governess in a family which, as usual, proves to be that of her mural admirer. Her charges are the historic three—the good one, the bad one, the indifferent one. The elder brothers are at once her slaves, and she sets about reforming the inebriate habits of the one and repelling the love-making of the other. The old invalid gentleman up stairs also finds her the staff of his life. The surrounding women, it is needless to say, are embodiments of envy and malice. In this school of novels the unconsciously beautiful heroine is always the monopolist of sense, virtue, and charm. Small wonder that, from the family lawyer to the family butler, all the masculine characters burn incense to her. But one figure is still wanting—the hero—who in due time, with full equipment of disillusionized heart and cynic brain, is ushered in with thunder and lightning in the nick of time to save the governess from death by a splitting fir tree. In five minutes she is telling him, "I have no pleasure in my life. My years are like a blank, dull waste," and he is saying, "You will not think so by and by, when the sun is shining and you are conscious of the young, vigorous life," etc.

The most salient feature of 'Harmonia' is its length, but, after enduring for a season, one learns to pity, and in a mild degree embrace, even as a sojourner in some dull village passes from apathy to observation, and thence to interest in the prosy annals of the place. 'Harmonia' disarms criticism by styling itself a chronicle; wisely, for there is no plot, no construction, no climax, but day upon day of little doings. The persons are chiefly English settlers of to-day in a wholly unreconstructed Southern State of America, who are trying to build a town, farm the land, and make their fortunes. The juxtaposition of English and the native blacks makes a contrast in races effective and new. The few white Americans who appear are mainly "poor trash," or swindling land-agents, or shirking clergymen. The exceptions are one or two American women who, spite of the inevitable English appointments for American women of hobbies and divorces, are meant to be, and are, attractive characters. In other words, it is an English view of life on American soil; the livers being English, under the not unpicturesque phase of a new settlement in a region comparatively old. It is observable that this gives the English a capital chance to have the best of it, and we must own to sharing the wicked American land-agent's regret that the foreign settlers should buy up the land, obtain influence, and yet despise the privileges of citizenship. The wicked land-agent's revenge even Americans must deplore, but it is well to allude to it, that those intending to read the book may perceive that it is not wholly without the scent of battle. There is burglary, there is kidnapping, there are snakes, but not to any uncomfortable extent. Naturally arise the discussions of a thousand topics —personal, social, and political—which are treated with honesty and spirit. The negro portraits are especially lifelike, though not from most agreeable originals. The English colony, as hinted, absorbs most of the merit and the spoils. Among its numbers are some very real persons, and the chronicle of their very real doings, told with humor and zest, will have an attraction for those who like pictures of life and manners rather than form and dramatic quality—pictures, let it be added, nearly coequal in extent with the original occurrences.

Forecasting the future by projecting one's self into the next century has been a favorite feat since literature was in its cradle, and bids fair to be so till its grave. Mr. Bellamy, however, has succeeded in investing the well-worn theme with a new interest, not only by certain original machinery, but by his evident enthusiasm for his subject. "Looking Backward" is a well-made book, but it is more—a glowing prophecy and a gospel of peace. He who reads it expecting merely to be entertained must, we should think, find himself unexpectedly haunted by visions of a golden age wherein all the world unites to do the world's work like members of one family, where labor and a living are provided for each man, where toil and leisure alternate in happy proportions, where want and therefore greed and jealousy are unknown, where the pleasures of this world are free to all, to cheer but not enslave. The miracle is wrought by "the national organization of labor under one direction." He who would ask if this be sound political economy, let him ask if Donatello's ears were really furry. To hold up to contemplation a world "blessed with plenty, purified by justice, and sweetened by brotherly kindness" is one of the good offices of romance. Thanks to Mr. Bellamy's ingenious device, we can see it with our own nineteenth-century eyes, and enjoy besides the mysteries he prepares. Thanks to the larger interests of the book, we can put it down in a pleasing tingle of optimism. Mr. George might object that the author begs the land question, that his schemes ought theoretically to have restored the state of society of ancient Peru instead of bringing about the millennium; but Mr. George himself would rejoice in a realized ideal of socialism such as this, and would even forgive the presence of his favorite bugbear, "white parasols and elephants mad with pride."

If the village of Deane had been properly drained, the 'Doctor of Deane' would never have been written. As it is a book worth the writing and the reading, that would have been a pity, and so one is fain to forgive, while condemning, one case of low fever, one narrow escape from drowning followed by fever, one case of hypochondria, one of consumption, one of nervous prostration attended with insanity, and one of typhoid fever, afflicting the principals of the story, besides fevers in sufficient quantities to supply the chorus of villagers. However, when the hero is a young physician, and the heroines have each a vocation for visiting the poor sick, one must expect the text to be more or less like the materia medica. Having lifted voice against the spread of contagion by malady-ridden novels, we gladly turn to the merits of this bright and well-written little book. Within its modest limits it holds an uncommonly distinct and agreeable group of portraits. Uncommon, too, is the perceptive quality which has taken note of innumerable subtleties of thought and feeling under the conditions of daily life, and set them down with a faithfulness that is in touch with nature, yet that never becomes odious by over-analyzing. We are not perfectly sure that every feminine reader will agree with the author in writing down modesty as Dr. West's most impressive trait, but we are sure that there will be found in the book a happy alternation of the thoughts that sparkle and those that softly shine.

Elements of Scientific and Practical Agriculture. By George Gemmell McKay. Baltimore: The Baltimore Publishing Co.

First Lessons in Agriculture. By F. A. Gulley, M.S., Professor of Agriculture in Agricultural College of Mississippi. Starkville: Agricultural College.

THESE two small treatises on agriculture come to us from two Southern States. The first is intended to be used as a text-book in the public schools. Whether the systematic study of agriculture, through the medium of a suitable text-book, might with advantage be introduced into the common schools of the rural districts of Maryland or the other States, is certainly a question worthy of consideration; but we are quite certain that in case of an affirmative answer, the "suitable text-book" would have to be a far different book from Mr. McKay's. It is very evident that he has had very little experience in making text-books or any other kind of books, and, whatever may have been his merits as an "Examiner of Public Schools, Alleghany County," we should hesitate about certifying to his accomplishments as a teacher. In the first place, there is one great blemish affecting every page of his book, giving it a mottled appearance, and annoying and confusing the reader. Mr. McKay does not use italics, but in their place a full-faced type of somewhat larger size than the rest of the text, thus making the words printed in that type extremely prominent. This means of calling attention to certain words in a sentence, he has employed with the most unsparing liberality; but in a large proportion of the cases it is impossible to understand why the particular words he has thus honored were selected in preference to half-a-dozen other words of equal importance in the same sentence. If any one will read aloud to a friend one of the thickly speckled pages of this book, putting a special emphasis on the words printed in full-faced type, he will certainly run the risk of being interrupted with the question, Why do you read in such an absurd way?

The author treats at great length in several chapters on the influence of water and air in disintegrating the primitive rocks and turning them into what he calls "soil," for to him every form of earth that is not rock is soil. In doing this he personifies oxygen and carbonic acid, representing them as two workmen laboring upon the rocks. He also gives us a long account of a visit to the Mt. Savage fire-brick works, and speaks of the kindness of Mr. Findlay, the foreman of mines, who took him a long way under ground, etc., etc., all of which would be much more in place in a letter to a newspaper than in a text-book for schools. Of course the book contains much that in any case would fittingly have a place in a text-book; but its whole plan, structure, and style would have to be altered—much omitted, much explained, and much inserted—before it would be fitted for the pupils of a rural public school.

"The derivation and meaning of a few words, which may not be familiar to all, have been given at the end of the book for the convenience of those who may not have a diction-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ary at hand." On what principle this short vocabulary has been constructed, it is impossible to say. Most of the words it contains are neither unusual, nor technical, nor agricultural, while many words belonging to one or the other of those classes, and which occur in the text, are not inserted in it. Thus, on the first page of the vocabulary, we find the words: accumulated, alienated, alleviate, alliance, animated, artificial, avail, with their ordinary dictionary definitions, while, to mention a single instance, the word "granules," used in a technical manner, occurs on page 19, but is not contained in the vocabulary.

Mr. McKay has evidently read a good deal about geology and agricultural chemistry, and has inserted a large amount of high science in his book, much of it entirely beyond the capacity of the pupils of public schools, and all of it in a crude, undigested state that renders it of little value to anybody. It is somewhat singular that the book, though intended to be used as a text-book, and therefore presumably to secure a somewhat extended circulation, contains no indication of being copyrighted.

The second book on our list comes from Mississippi. It was prepared in pursuance of a request of the Board of Trustees and of the President of the College. It is a 12mo of only 118 pages, printed in rather large type. It is surprising how much clear and useful information the author has been able to condense into this narrow compass. Whatever restrictions may have been really imposed upon him by narrow limits, he has yet had the skill, so agreeable to the reader, to seem always to have room enough to say all he wanted to and in the way that suited him. Of course, the treatment, as a whole, and of particular subjects, is particularly adapted to the extreme South; but the book may be read with pleasure and profit by any one interested in agriculture in any latitude. As an example of Prof. Gulley's skill, we would mention his treatment of the subject of fertilizers. The different kinds, their chemical composition, the special advantages and best manner of using each sort, and their market value, are all treated in a manner apparently full and complete. From some passages we infer that Prof. Gulley has for some years been manager of the farm connected with the Agricultural College, that he has availed himself of his opportunities for experiment, and that he has a keen eye not only for scientific, but also for pecuniary results. Although he does not expressly mention the subject, yet it is easy to see that he does not regard the exhaustion of the cotton lands of the South as either necessary or imminent. With the spread of intelligence, and the improvement in the methods of cultivation, there is no reason why the production of cotton should not be increased and indefinitely prolonged.

A short glossary of agricultural terms is appended to the work.

Science Sketches. By David Starr Jordan. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1888. 8vo, 276 pp.

THIS volume is made up of a number of unconnected sketches and addresses on such varied subjects as the natural history of fishes, the biography of naturalists, an ascent of the Matterhorn, and the evolution of the college curriculum in America, with an appendix giving a bibliography of the author's contributions to scientific literature. Three of the articles are printed for the first time, and the others, which have appeared in various periodicals, have been more or less revised.

The papers make no pretence to literary quality, and are of various degrees of merit. Naturally, those relating to Prof. Jordan's favorite animals, the fishes, are the most interesting and possess the most value. That on the salmon family easily stands first. Naturalists will be grateful for the kindly review of the life and work of the veteran naturalist of Cuba, Felipe Poey, and the sketch of the less lovable, more erratic, and ever enthusiastic Rafinesque. The account of the ascent of the Matterhorn is well told, and will attract the attention of readers adventurously inclined. The paper on the evolution of the college curriculum adds little to what has been said by others, and suffers from a discursiveness which somewhat obscures its aim. The bibliography of Prof. Jordan's writings will have a high value for ichthyological students, and gives the little book a permanent value which would not have been insured by the articles that constitute its text.

Memoirs of an Arabian Princess. An Autobiography. By Emily Ruete, *née* Princess of Oman and Zanzibar. D. Appleton & Co.

THIS book derives not a little of its charm from its faults. Its style is artlessness itself, which we would by no means hold a defect except as it leads the writer into the prettiest self-contradictions and inconsistencies. Yet the very inconsistencies reveal a true consistency and truthfulness in the book, since they stamp it as the unaffected narrative of a life divided into two strangely opposite halves —one part led in the secluded home of the Sultan of Zanzibar, the other as a German wife, mother, and widow. The ex-Princess writes throughout as one whose intellect had become convinced of the immense superiority of European civilization to that of the Arabs, yet whose heart clung fondly to the customs of the land of her childhood. Hence come her defences of the Mohammedan practices of polygamy, of slavery, of the seclusion of women, in all of which we get a better idea of her loyal affection for her home and kindred than of her ability intelligently to discuss such important social questions. The book professes to be written primarily for her children, and its body of simple reminiscences bears out this profession admirably. Upon a thread of personal experience she has strung a series of highly interesting accounts of the social and religious customs of the Arab nobility. Add her own remarkable adventures, told in a delightfully because unconsciously egotistic manner, and the whole makes a book which ought to attract many readers. The grosser literary blemishes are due, we suppose, to the translator, the 'Memoirs' having been originally written in German.

The Enemies of Books. By William Blades. Revised and enlarged by the author. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1888.

THIS latest issue of "The Book Lovers' Library" is a very entertaining little volume, in which the destroyers of books, elemental, human, or vermicular, are very properly made the object of anathema. Fire and water have had their share, but they have been merely no respecters of persons, and Livy was to them no more than the Parthenon or Baiæ. Worms must have their food, beetles and rats and flies and servants and children may all plead some excuse of nature for their havoc, and against such lifeless things as gas and heat, mould and moss and ivy, it would be foolish to be intemperate; but the great destroyers of books seem rather to have been bigotry, ignorance, and neglect, and the sins of the last are the deepest in dye. Many of the stories told here seem incredible, but some of them are only too familiar; and so far as the old books are concerned, the manuscripts and "the fifteeners," it is to be suspected that it is rather the enormous rise in their money value than any respect for learning which has put a stop to the carelessness which was their lot up to the last quarter of a century. Clergymen now will not cut off margins to use for note paper, nor librarians consign Caxtons to the grate, or leave them to rot in the rain; but it appears that collectors of woodcuts or engravings, title-pages and colophons, maps and portraits, still tear old books to pieces, and even cut the illuminated initials out of manuscripts, to add to their museums. Many curious anecdotes, nevertheless, are told by Mr. Blades of ignorance and negligence in recent years, and those interested in books as such will find pleasant reading here, together with some valuable suggestions about the care of books. This library has not given to "book lovers" a volume which belongs to it by better right.

The United States of Yesterday and of To-morrow. By William Barrows, D.D. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1888.

THIS book is pitched in a somewhat old-fashioned key. It has the twang of the Fourth of July oration of the days before the war. The length of our coast-line, the size of our rivers, the extent of our territory, the numbers of our hogs and of our citizens, are the facts upon which this writer expatiates, and with which he endeavors, by means of all sorts of comparisons, to overwhelm the imagination of his readers. Those who like to be told just how many times England could be put into the United States, and how many States of the size of Massachusetts could be carved out of Alaska, will find here an abundance of the nutriment which they affect, and will probably like it all the better for the turgidity of style which seems inseparable from writing of this kind. But stupefaction before mere magnitude is not a desirable mental attitude. The size of our country is impressive; the increase of our wealth is fabulous; the growth of our population is amazing; but if a writer have mastered these facts in all their details and have not simplicity of speech, it profiteth him nothing. If Dr. Barrows would cease to strain after effect, and just tell us what he knows—and his knowledge is really extensive—he would produce books of permanent interest and value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ainger, A. Letters of Charles Lamb. 2 vols. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $3.
Bangs, J. K. Katharine: a Travesty. New York: Privately Printed.
Benner's Prophecies of Future Ups and Downs in Prices. 4th ed. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.
Berkowitz, Rabbi H. Judaism and the Social Question. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Bristol, Dr. E. L. M. A Story of the Sands, and Other Poems. Brentanos. $1.
Carter, Captain R. K. Divine Healing. New ed. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Culver, H. H. Epitome of Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Doumic, René. Eléments d'histoire littéraire: Littérature française. Paris: Delaplane; Boston: Schoenhof.
Evans, Margaret. Letters of Richard Radcliffe and John James, of Queen's College, Oxford, 1755–83. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Fallex, E. Œuvres choisies de Diderot. Paris: A. Lemerre; Boston: Schoenhof.
Forbush, W. B. Poems of a Boy. Hanover, N. H.: Privately Printed.
Foster, J. Ellen. The Crime against Ireland. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 60 cents.
Greenough, Prof. J. B. Satires and Epistles of Horace. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.35.
Hare, A. J. C. Walks in Paris. George Routledge & Sons. $3.
Haussonville, Comte Othenin d'. Prosper Mérimée—Hugh Elliot. Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof.
Herbert, M. Poems of "Frank Forester" (Henry William Herbert). John Wiley & Sons.
James, H. E. M. The Long White Mountain; or, A Journey in Manchuria. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
King, T. Haschisch: A Novel. Brentanos. 25 cents.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Henry Holt & Co.

PUBLISH

The Causes of the French Revolution.

By R. W. Dabney, Professor in Indiana University. 16mo, $1.25.

Loyalty George.

A Novel. By Mrs. Parr, author of 'Dorothy Fox.' Cloth, $1.00; paper, 30 cents.

"BOOK NEWS"

Gives the pith and marrow of every new book; says why this book should be read, and that skipped. News of the book world; original articles by the foremost writers, and with each number a detached portrait (7¼x10¼) of a popular author.

Monthly. 50 cents a year, postpaid. *Sample copy free.*

JOHN WANAMAKER,
Philadelphia.

Invaluable to Travellers going Abroad.

BAEDEKER'S GUIDE-BOOKS

to Belgium and Holland, Rhine, Alps, Italy, 3 vols., Paris and London, each $2.50; Germany, 2 vols., each $3.00; Norway and Sweden, $3.50; Switzerland, $2.00; Lower Egypt, $6.00; Palestine, $7.50; Great Britain, $4.00; Manual of Conversation, $1.25.

Sent, postpaid, on receipt of price.

BRENTANOS,
5 Union Square, N. Y. 101 State St., Chicago.
17 Ave. de L'Opera, Paris, France.

DAVID G. FRANCIS,

17 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK.

DEALER IN VALUABLE OLD AND NEW

BOOKS.

Priced Catalogues issued from time to time, sent gratis to any address.

THE WAYS AND MEANS AND MR. RANDALL'S

NEW TARIFF BILLS.

Price, 25 cents each.

Address J. H. HICKCOX,
906 M St., Washington, D. C.

F. W. CHRISTERN,

254 Fifth Avenue, between 28th and 29th Sts., New York.

Importer of Foreign Books, Agent for the leading Paris Publishers, Tauchnitz's British Authors, Teubner's Greek and Latin Classics. Catalogues of stock mailed on demand. A large assortment always on hand, and new books received from Paris and Leipzig as soon as issued.

THE DIVINITY SCHOOL OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

For the year 1888–89 two resident Fellowships of $500 each are offered to Graduates of Theological Schools who intend to devote themselves to the Christian Mi[illegible] These fellowships are intended to encour[illegible]anced theological work of a high order. [illegible]plications for a "Williams Fellowship," accompanied by testimonials and specimens of work, must be made to the Dean before June 1, 1888.

C. C. EVERETT,
Dean.

A Pleasant Winter Trip to the Tropics.

THE STEAMSHIPS OF THE RED "D" LINE.

Sailing every twelve days for Venezuela, S. A., and the Island of Curacoa, W. I., afford an unequalled opportunity to those wishing to make a short sea voyage to the tropics.

These American steamers, especially built for the trade, are provided with every modern appliance for the safety, convenience, and comfort of passengers. The round trip is made in four weeks, and costs but $144.

For descriptive pamphlet, apply to

BOULTON, BLISS & DALLETT,
General Managers, 71 Wall St., New York.

MACMILLAN & CO.'S *NEW BOOKS.*

Now Ready, Vol. I., 12mo, Paper, 50 Cents; Cloth, limp, 60 Cents; Cloth, edges uncut, 75 Cents.

TWELVE ENGLISH STATESMEN.

Under the above title Messrs. Macmillan & Co. beg to announce a series of short biographies, not designed to be a complete roll of famous statesmen, but to present in historic order the lives and work of those leading actors in English affairs who by their direct influence have left an abiding mark on the policy, the institutions, and the position of Great Britain among the States.

The following list of subjects is the result of careful selection. The great movements of national history are made to follow one another in a connected course, and the series is intended to form a continuous narrative of English freedom, order, and power. The volumes, which consist of the following biographies, are in press or in preparation:

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D. Ready.
HENRY II. By Mrs. J. R. Green.
EDWARD I. By F. York Powell.
HENRY VII. By James Gairdner.
WOLSEY. By Prof. M. Creighton. April.
ELIZABETH. By the Dean of St. Paul's.
OLIVER CROMWELL. By Frederic Harrison.
WILLIAM III. By H. D. Traill. May.
WALPOLE. By John Morley.
CHATHAM. By John Morley.
PITT. By John Morley.
PEEL. By J. R. Thursfield.

The Dean of St. Paul's.

COLLECTED EDITION OF DEAN CHURCH'S MISCELLANEOUS WRITINGS. Uniform with the collected works of John Morley, Matthew Arnold, etc. In 5 volumes. Globe 8vo, each $1.50. To be published in monthly volumes.

Vol 1. MISCELLANEOUS ESSAYS. *Ready.*
Vol. 2. DANTE, and other Essays. *April.*
Vol. 3. ST. ANSELM. *May.*
Vol. 4. SPENSER. *June.*
Vol. 5. BACON. *July.*

Mrs. Oliphant's New Book.

THE MAKERS OF VENICE. Doges, Conquerors, Painters, and Men of Letters. By Mrs. Oliphant, author of 'The Makers of Florence,' etc., etc. With numerous Illustrations. 12mo, $3.00.

Twenty-fifth Annual Publication (revised after Official Returns).

THE STATESMAN'S YEAR-BOOK. For the year 1888. A Statistical and Historical Annual of the States of the Civilized World. Edited by J. Scott Keltie, Librarian to the Royal Geographical Society. 12mo, $3.00.

"That valuable compilation, 'The Statesman's Year-Book.'"—*Mr. Gladstone in the Contemporary Review for March.*

"The ideal book of reference."—*Saturday Review.*

LIFE IN COREA. By W. R. Carles, F.R.G.S., H. M. Vice-Consul at Shanghai, and formerly H. M. Vice-Consul in Corea. With illustrations. 8vo, $4.

NEW NOVELS.

THE NEW JUDGMENT OF PARIS. By Philip Lafargue. 12mo, $1.

A TEACHER OF THE VIOLIN, and Other Tales. By J. H. Shorthouse, author of 'John Inglesant,' 'Sir Percival,' etc. 12mo, $1. *Immediately.*

OXFORD CLARENDON PRESS NEW BOOKS.

Completion of Professor Prestwich's Geology.

GEOLOGY: Chemical, Physical, and Stratigraphical. By J. Prestwich, M.A., F.R.S., Professor of Geology, Oxford. Royal 8vo, cloth, with maps and illustrations.
Vol. 1. Chemical and Physical. $6.25.
Vol. 2. Stratigraphical and Paleontological. $9.00. *Ready.*

ARISTOTLE'S POLITICS. Edited, with an Introduction, Two Prefatory Essays, and Notes, critical and explanatory. By W. L. Newman, M.A., Fellow of Balliol College. Vols. 1 and 2. 8vo, $7.00. Vol. 1. Introduction to the Politics. Vol. 2. Prefatory Essays. Books 1 and 2. Texts and Notes.

New Edition of Holland's Jurisprudence.

THE ELEMENTS OF JURISPRUDENCE. By T. E. Holland, D.C.L., Professor of International Law, Oxford. Fourth Edition. 8vo, $2.50.

"May fairly be regarded as one of the few triumphs of legal literature."—*Albany Law Journal.*

"Has, in fact, superseded 'Austin's Treatise.'"—*Law Magazine and Review.*

MACMILLAN & CO., 112 Fourth Avenue, New York.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED